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Henry Brock

Torquay

1899

Mr. WILLIAM FOSTER.

FORTUNES MADE IN BUSINESS

A

SERIES OF ORIGINAL SKETCHES

Biographical and Anecdotic

FROM THE

RECENT HISTORY OF INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE

By VARIOUS WRITERS

VOLUME II.

LONDON:
SAMPSON LOW, MARSTON, SEARLE & RIVINGTON
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1884

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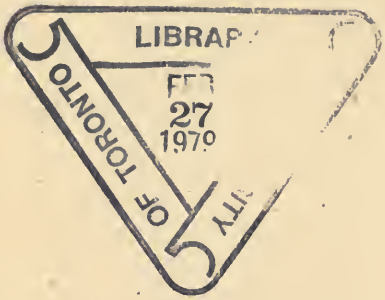

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THE FOSTERS OF QUEENSBURY.

THE FOSTERS OF QUEENSBURY.

ON a bleak and rugged height, eleven hundred feet above the level of the sea, stands the thriving manufacturing village of Queensbury. It is a village on a mountain-top, exposed to all the winds that blow, and commanding vast views of the surrounding country, including in the prospect the busy smoke-hued towns of Halifax and Bradford, their forests of towering factory chimneys, and the far-stretching hills and dales which intervene. Seventy years ago Queensbury was a remote and not easily accessible hamlet of some two hundred inhabitants; to-day it is a great industrial colony, with a population of about eight thousand persons. Seventy years ago it was known to mail-coach travellers as a welcome halting-place, where, after a long and toilsome

climb with panting horses, they were enabled to procure rest and warmth and refreshment before dropping down into the valley on the other side. The name of this lonely roadside hostelry, where the horses baited and the travellers rested and regaled, was the Queen's Head, and it was by no other name than Queen's Head that the village was known down to the year 1863, when it declined any longer to be satisfied with a public-house sign-board for a name, and proclaimed itself to the world, formally, seriously, and irrevocably, as Queensbury, and by that name it has been known ever since. It was in the Queen Anne period that the Queen's Head inn was instituted; prior to that the little cluster of one-storied tenements, which stood perched there on the hill-top, had been known by the primitive name of Causewayend. Up to that particular turning-point of the road, it is safe to presume, there had existed on the Bradford side of the hill some semblance of a civilised road, and a causeway for foot-passengers; but it had not been considered necessary to continue the causeway beyond these few cottages; hence the name

Causewayend, or, according to the customary vernacular definition, "t' Caus'a' End."

The hardy, vigorous, plain-spoken Yorkshiremen who settled in this lofty region did not trouble themselves to think out euphonious or high-sounding names for the odd nooks and corners of the hill-side, which gradually became peopled as the locality developed into a manufacturing district. Spades were spades to them, and they christened their dwelling-grounds, homesteads, and landmarks in conformity with their physical peculiarities or their special associations. For instance, there was Scarlet Heights, where local tradition said there had been a sanguinary fray between contending factions in the time of the Wars of the Roses. A field in the same vicinity was called Bloody Ing, and a block of houses subsequently built thereon was styled Bloody Row. Then there was Nave Lane (since corrupted into Knave Lane), which obtained its title from the fact that no vehicle could plough through its quagmires and bogs without sinking to the *nave* of its wheels. Blackdike, Blackmires, Blackshaw,

Swamp, and Harrowins are amongst the other distinctive appellations which attach to localities in and around Queensbury, and they sufficiently indicate the original nature of this half-mountain, half-moorland district. In some few instances, however, the natives have indulged in something more than a mere descriptive appellation, and have selected titles which bring into strange relationship the names of the countries and cities of far-off lands. Thus we find such places as Greenland and Van Diemen's Land in close contiguity to Queensbury; and at Thornton, a mile or two away, we may walk from Moscow to Egypt, from Egypt to Jerusalem, and thence to the World's End, in a very short space of time.

In no part of Yorkshire was there to be found, at the beginning of the present century, more originality and vigour of character than amongst these hardy northerners; and it was amidst such scenes and people that John Foster, the founder of the worsted industry of Queensbury, was born and reared. John Foster was the son of Mr. Jonas Foster, and was born in the township of Thornton, the place which gave

birth to Charlotte Brontë. Mr. Jonas Foster was a farmer and colliery owner, and lived on his own farm at Moor Royd Gate. He was descended from an ancient line of yeoman whose names had long been prominent in the annals of Thornton, and his circumstances were such as to enable him to give his son what would be considered at that time a moderately good education. John Foster was born on January 20th, 1798, and received his earliest educational training at the Thornton Grammar School, an institution which had been founded and endowed in 1672 "for the maintenance of a schoolmaster to teach Latin and English." How much of Latin or of English was drilled into the future manufacturer prince at this school it is difficult to say; but, after a time, his father considered it well to take him away from the school, and give him the opportunity of exercising his mind in business pursuits. John Foster employed himself with great energy in the work of his father's farm and mines, and early and late was to be found plodding away persistently and methodically in the rural occupations to which he was directed. But his

father was anxious that he should not give himself up entirely to business as yet, although he had always destined him, in his own mind, for a commercial career. So, after allowing John to follow his bent for a while on the farm, he sent him to Brookhouse School, near Ovenden, and there the young man may be said to have completed his education. It was while at this school that he made the acquaintance of Mr. Jonathan Akroyd of Halifax, who afterwards became the founder of another of the largest manufacturing concerns in the West Riding; and it is not improbable that the friendship that was then engendered between two congenial minds acted as an incentive to both to undertake those business enterprises which ultimately brought them fame and fortune. They were both Yorkshiremen of the truest type, wont to look upon life in that self-reliant manly spirit which recognises the necessity to fight and conquer, but scorns to stoop to low devices for the achievement of its ends. They appreciated to the full the dignity of labour; and it is pleasant to think of these two kindred spirits, with their high aims and active brains, looking out together

upon the future, and resolving, dreaming, and planning as to what they would create for themselves out of it. After leaving Brookhouse School, John Foster set himself to learn the art and mystery of the worsted manufacture; and so diligently and successfully did he apply himself in this direction, that by the time he came of age, in 1819, he was able to establish a worsted business of his own at Low Fold, near Queensbury. In the same year he took a further means of setting himself in life by marrying the daughter of Mr. Abram Briggs. In this estimable lady Mr. Foster found a help-meet in the truest sense of the word, and from that time forward, both in his domestic and in his business relations, he seems to have been peculiarly fortunate.

The worsted manufacture was at this period just beginning to show signs of that vigorous development which, thanks to the energy, foresight and directness of purpose of such pioneers as Mr. Foster, subsequently attended it. The country was fast recovering from the trade-crippling effects of the wars with Napoleon, and, what with the increasing power of mechanical

invention and the growing confidence of capitalists, an era of industrial prosperity appeared to be at last an actual realisation. Mr. Foster was one of the first to take advantage of this improved state of things; and in hundreds of cottages on the remote hill-top in and around Queensbury there was to be heard from morn to night the sound of busy looms, engaged in making the worsted pieces which Mr. Foster found a ready market for in Bradford and Halifax. In course of time, Mr. Foster became the largest employer of hand-loom labour in the district, and for certain special fabrics acquired a considerable reputation. The goods chiefly manufactured by him were lastings and damasks. The former were, as their name implies, textiles of a very strong description, hardy, stout, and sturdy, like the people who were engaged in producing them.

The next landmark in Mr. Foster's career was the building of Prospect House at Queensbury, a substantial mansion which he erected in 1827, and resided in continuously for the greater part of his life. Prospect House not only added dignity to the Queensbury landscape,

but served to indicate that the young manufacturer had reached a point of success which was in advance of anything that had been achieved in that locality before. To the people around it would then seem that Mr. Foster had attained the height of his prosperity; whereas, as it subsequently turned out, he was yet only on the very threshold of his commercial career. Already he had made what in those days would be considered a fortune, despite the remoteness of the locality wherein he had pitched his tent, and the frequent periods of depression which occurred in those days; but he was still young, and had a family of sons and daughters growing up around him, and the more success he won, the more he desired. The ambition of a man of business, fortunately, has no limit, and Mr. Foster plodded on year after year with unwearying industry, adapting himself always to the demands and necessities of the time, and securing for himself a foothold in the commercial world from which he was not to be dislodged. By 1832 his operations had expanded to such a degree that he found himself compelled to look out for additional business quarters; so

he became the tenant of Cannon Mill, a large new factory situated at Great Horton, a village midway between Queensbury and Bradford, and there he carried on for some time the main portion of his spinning business. Three years later Mr. Foster was prompted to build a mill of his own at Blackdike, the site of a farmstead at Queensbury, which had been in his wife's family since the year 1779. He was mainly his own architect in this project as in everything else; he had the factory built according to his own plans, and superintended the erection thereof down to the minutest detail, insisting always, in the spirit of the true economist, upon being supplied with the best materials and the best workmanship. Many people regarded the erection of this factory—now called the Old Mill, and forming but a very small portion of the Blackdike Works—as a wild and reckless investment of capital; but those who best understood Mr. Foster's character and appreciated his shrewdness and clear business instincts were far from predicting failure for the undertaking. In due time the mill was completed; and soon there were from 3,000 to

4,000 spindles at work there, turning out yarn at the rate of 1,200 gross per week, a quantity which, at that day and in that locality, was looked upon as something prodigious. Not the most sanguine expectations of the founder of the Blackdike Works, however, could have forecast the magnitude to which these works were ultimately destined to grow. If the local pessimists of that day could have been privileged to have dipped into the future to the extent of some quarter of a century, they would have seen such a dispersion of cloud and shadow from their vision as would have almost made them believers in the truth of the old-world legends of magic and sorcery. They would have seen then (as many of them lived to see afterwards) that first Queensbury mill hemmed in on all sides by newer mills, each of them of far greater dimensions than the original factory, and of much superior architectural formation; they would have seen gigantic piles of warehouses, a long range of palatial offices, immense reservoirs, and extensive machine-shops containing altogether no less than thirteen acres of flooring; in place of the 3,000 to 4,000

spindles they would have seen 50,000, capable of producing 12,000 gross of yarn per week; and in addition to the spinning they would have seen the processes of woolcombing and of weaving—indeed, all the operations connected with the production of worsted pieces—carried on upon a stupendous scale in this one concern.

The time it took to accomplish all this was very short. Messrs. Foster's establishment developed with all the rapidity of an American city, and their original competitors in trade were soon outdistanced. It is related of one of Mr. Foster's neighbours, a gentleman who aspired to keep abreast with Mr. Foster in the race for commercial honours, that when he saw the Blackdike factory rising in frowning obtrusion near his own property, he built a great wall to shut the building from view, and declined to allow Mr. Foster to become the purchaser of the land. This gentleman, however, belonged to the old school, while Mr. Foster was essentially a leader of the new school; it is not surprising, therefore, that the latter soon got ahead of the former, although, it is only fair to add, Mr.

Foster's early rival himself amassed considerable wealth in his own humdrum quiet-going way, and was after a time glad to relinquish the wall, and to allow Mr. Foster to build up his mills and his fortune in peace.

A few years previous to the erection of Mr. Foster's first factory, a great transformation had taken place in the worsted manufacture by the introduction of power-looms. In 1822 Mr. James Warbrick had had a power-loom secretly made at Shipley; but when it came to be put into motion the news of its completion got abroad, and a mob of weavers surrounded the mill, and threatened the building with destruction unless the obnoxious loom was immediately removed. The manufacturer was thus compelled to take the loom down; and while it was being carted away under an escort of constables the excited weavers attacked the party, routed the escort, destroyed the loom, and dragged the roller and warp in triumph through the streets. Messrs. Horsfall of Bradford afterwards introduced some power-looms into their mill; and in May, 1826, a large body of operatives made a desperate attempt to force their way into the building and

get at the hated machinery; but a gallant force of constables and others, to the number of about forty persons, under the command of Colonel Plumbe Tempest, a local magistrate, defended the place from within, and successfully held their ground. The Colonel read the Riot Act to the mob and requested them to disperse, but was answered only by a shower of stones, which destroyed a great portion of the windows. After that one of the rioters fired a pistol into the mill, and the people inside retaliated by firing some twenty or thirty shots amongst the crowd, killing two persons and wounding a large number. This unfortunate affair had the effect of crushing the opposition of the workpeople to the introduction of power-looms, and not long afterwards the new machines were brought into general use in the worsted factories of the neighbourhood.

One of the persons killed in this riot was a native of Queensbury; and it is easy to understand how the weavers of that village would view with apprehension the attempt to supersede by machinery the labour which was to them the sole means of existence. They were not capable of

reasoning beyond this point; they could not see that greater facilities of production meant cheaper fabrics and a largely increased consumption. Mr. Foster at this time had no fewer than 700 weavers working for him by hand, and when the power-loom problem first presented itself to him one can well imagine that the welfare of these 700 dependents was quite as much in his thoughts as the desire to adopt the new machinery. Indeed, his subsequent action in regard to them amply proved that this was so, for he retained his hand-loom weavers at their old employment long after he had adopted the power-loom in his factory; and finally many of them were induced to transfer the scene of their labours from their own homes to the weaving-room of the mill, and to exchange their slow-paced hand-looms for the swift-going looms which were propelled by steam. Such weavers as were unwilling or unable to undergo the ordeal of transition were permitted to work their time out under the old system. Thus the sound of the hand-loom continued to be heard in Queensbury long after it had died away in other parts of the worsted district. The power-loom, however, was but a very imperfect

machine when in 1826 it was introduced into Bradford; it could not then have been trusted to manipulate the class of goods manufactured by Mr. Foster. But the lord of Blackdike did not fail to keep his eye upon the experiments that were being made to improve the new loom, and when he saw that it could with safety and profit be adopted by him he was not slow in bringing it into operation in his own works.

Power-looms were introduced into the Blackdike Works in 1836. The next ten years were perhaps the most eventful in the history, not only of Queensbury, but of the worsted trade generally. Simultaneously with the invention of new machines the invention of new fabrics went on, new fibres were discovered, and a variety of fresh and effective arrangements and combinations of old materials were hit upon. One of the foremost in tracking out and adopting these new ideas was Mr. Foster. The story of Sir Titus Salt's discovery at Liverpool of the "three hundred and odd sacks of nondescript hair-wool," known as alpaca, has often been told; but scarcely sufficient justice has been done to those who, like Mr. John Foster, were con-

temporaneously engaged with Sir Titus Salt in experimenting upon and perfecting the manufacture of alpaca. Nevertheless, it is not more than is due to those gentlemen to say that their efforts in that direction assisted very materially in furthering the development of this important branch of the worsted industry. Mr. Foster was experimenting with alpaca wool as early as the year 1837, and his efforts were such as to place him for a considerable time in advance of almost all his rivals in the fabrication of this class of goods, and to the present time the Blackdike firm has preserved an enviable preëminence in the manufacture of alpaca. Hardly less important in its effect upon the worsted trade was the introduction of mohair as an element of manufacture, and at Blackdike as much as anywhere probably has this valuable Asiatic fibre been brought to its present prominence in the making of the more lustrous and beautiful articles of feminine attire.

In 1842 Mr. Foster's eldest son, Mr. William Foster, came of age, and was taken into partnership, by which step a fresh and powerful impetus was given to the operations of the Blackdike establishment. Mr. William Foster had received

his education at private schools in the first instance, and had then, from 1834 until he attained his majority and partnership, been steadily engaged under the able direction of his father, in mastering the ins and outs of the worsted manufacture. He was possessed of the precise qualities necessary for the successful working of a large industrial undertaking like that upon which he and his father now found themselves embarked. The new partner brought to bear upon the business a rare amount of administrative ability, a full knowledge of the worsted manufacture in all its details, and that spirit of energy, enterprise, and devotedness which has always played so important a part in the composition of successful men of business. Mr. John Foster, with the recollection always about him of the old business methods from which he had broken away, might at times be disposed to think that his son was urging on the business at too great a pace; but as time wore on, and as the ideas of the younger partner gained fruition and proved successful, the founder of the firm began to rely more and more upon the commercial sagacity of his son, and with well-balanced activity the business progressed and the works extended

until the Blackdike Mills became one of the industrial wonders of the district.

It was a period of great commercial depression when Mr. William Foster assumed the position he was destined for so long a time to occupy at Blackdike. The distress amongst the working classes was very great, and what with the Chartist agitation, and the riotous combinations of unemployed operatives, the West Riding was kept for many months in a state of considerable terror and excitement. It was then that what became known as the plug-drawing riots took place. The old cry was raised against machinery, and the aim of the rioters was to destroy or otherwise cause the stoppage of the looms and spindles, which were the imagined source of the industrial stagnation. The disquiet which prevailed in the manufacturing districts was almost as intense as it had been during the time of the Luddite riots, and, but for the terror which the punishment of the chief offenders in those disturbances had left in the minds of the people, there is little doubt there would have been in 1842 a repetition of the excesses of 1812. Contingents of military were posted in all parts of the West Riding, and large

numbers of special constables were sworn in; yet, notwithstanding all this effort to uphold the supreme authority of the law, the rioters wrought much mischief, and caused a temporary suspension of manufacturing operations in all the places they visited. Their aim was, at all the mills they attacked, to force in the plugs of the boilers, by which means they insured the stoppage of the machinery for a while. Leeds and Bradford were in a state of much disorder; in both places there were frequent conflicts between the rioters and the military, though the soldiers in almost every instance refrained from firing upon the mob.

During all this time the works at Blackdike were kept going, and the people of Queensbury had much to be thankful for that they were, as it seemed, both out of the reach of the disturbers of the peace and out of the reach of the worst features of the commercial distress. But they were not to be allowed to go entirely unmolested, as it turned out; for one morning there came a messenger to Blackdike in hot haste to inform the proprietors and their workpeople that a large army of rioters were marching on them from Halifax, intending to take Blackdike on their way to Bradford. This event must have

formed a very striking incident in Mr. William Foster's first year's experience as a partner. He and his father at once set to work to organise a party of defence; and when the rioters came towards the summit of the hill, flourishing their primitive weapons, and rending the air with their wild shouts, they found themselves confronted by such an array of stalwart denizens of the hill-top that they passed forward without doing much damage. They plundered the village of a considerable quantity of provisions, however, and left a strong feeling of alarm behind them; but by the time they had well dropped down the other side of the hill, out of sight, the workers of Queensbury had resumed their wonted pursuits.

For the next few years the worsted trade remained in a state of great depression; panic followed panic, and failure succeeded failure, until the commercial affairs of the country seemed to have touched their lowest depth. But the wave of adversity appeared unable to reach to the remote heights of Queensbury; it washed and foamed with disastrous effect miles below, at the base of the hill, in the smoke-canopied valleys

where the tall chimneys of Bradford and Halifax reared their heads, and swept away many firms of ancient standing and a host of smaller men. Still, during all this time of trial and anxiety, John Foster & Son kept themselves high and dry above the torrent, and largely extended their sphere of operations. It was in 1842 that they built a large new weaving shed capable of holding 500 looms, and not long afterwards they added what is known as the Shed-mill to their already extensive establishment. That the firm were able to make these additions during a period when the general trade of the country was in a condition of stagnation is a great testimony to their business abilities.

There is no doubt the geographical position of the works at Blackdike had much to do with the firm's success. At first sight, the inaccessibility of the concern would seem to be a serious impediment to its progress; but to the strong-willed, hardy, and vigorous men whose fortunes were dependent upon the measure of success that attended the Blackdike enterprise, the presence of difficulties and obstacles, which by most people would have been deemed insur-

mountable, acted as incentives to exertion, and by incessant energy and application and by the force of that hard-headedness which is the characteristic of the best type of Yorkshire business men, they built up a gigantic success on lines which had theretofore been regarded as impossible of amplification. No railway or canal could get near them, either for the bringing in of the raw material or the outward despatch of their manufactured goods. True, there was not any railway even to Bradford at the date when the Blackdike Works were established; but the country was busy with all manner of railway projects, and, although no one ever dreamed of planning a railroad to Queensbury, the Fosters were fully alive to the importance of promoting the railway system generally. So, although they had to be content, so far as they themselves were concerned, with a service of powerful waggons, strong horses, and sturdy drivers, for the conveying of their goods up and down the steep hill between Bradford and Queensbury, they saw the advantage of connecting themselves, even at a distance, with the improved means of carriage which was being established throughout the

country; and thus it was that their names became prominent, from 1842 onwards, in schemes for the formation and advancement of what have proved to be the most successful of our lines. Entering upon their railway undertakings at a most critical time, they nevertheless escaped being drawn into the joint-stock whirlpool, which swallowed up so many fortunes during the existence of the railway mania. John Foster & Son were enterprising, but they were not reckless. Mr. William Foster was the moving spirit of the firm always in respect of the railway enterprises that they ventured upon; and from 1842 down to the present time he has held a high position in connection with some of the leading Northern railway companies. He took a very active part in promoting the short railway from Leeds to Bradford, which line was opened some thirty-five years ago, and subsequently became absorbed in the Great Northern system. Both he and his brothers were also largely concerned in the organisation of the West Riding and Grimsby Railway, and assisted materially in the formation of the line between Halifax and Ovenden. Coming to more recent years, we find Mr. William

Foster promoting the construction of a railway which has almost had the effect of connecting Queensbury itself with the railway system of the country. This railway is called the Bradford and Thornton Railway, and takes within its range a number of villages which stand at a considerable altitude; but it was too great a work, even in these days of astounding feats of engineering, to carry the line altogether to Queensbury; still it comes within less than a mile of this now famed colony, and must have proved of considerable advantage to the Fosters in the increased facilities of carriage that it must necessarily have given them. Of this railway company Mr. William Foster was the chairman. He is also a director of the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway Company, and has, during the whole of his business career, identified himself closely with many other undertakings of this nature, in the working out of which he has, by his sound judgment and business tact, been of great assistance. As far as the legitimate and healthy employment of capital, and his own personal services and advice, are concerned, Mr. William Foster has always been ready to aid such schemes,

and the good he has done in this direction will not go without recognition.

In the old days it was no uncommon thing for the senior partner of the firm to do a business journey from Queensbury to Leeds and back on foot, a distance of nearly thirty miles; and, though the roads were rugged and the hills were steep, he was well able to accomplish the task, being a man of almost herculean build, and capable of almost any amount of physical endurance. As time moved on, however, the strain upon Mr. John Foster was much lightened, his eldest son, and afterwards his other sons, taking upon themselves the main responsibilities of management. Mr. William Foster followed in the footsteps of his father in regard to planning and superintending the erection of new buildings, as well as in other matters, and it came to be a saying at Blackdike that there was not a single beam, shaft, machine, pipe, or drain, of which he did not know the whereabouts. Especially did Mr. William Foster turn his attention to sanitary matters, and to him in a great degree is due the admirable sanative arrangements which have made the Blackdike Works one of the most healthful

industrial establishments in the country. Every building was projected on a liberal scale as to light and air; the old notions of cramming as much labour as possible into a given space were discarded; and the fresh mills and warehouses which were successively added to the Blackdike establishment in 1842, 1850, 1858, 1865, and other years, were model buildings, and as substantial as they were healthy and convenient.

It would be an injustice to the firm not to attempt to give some description of the works as they now stand. Let us, therefore, suppose a visitor arriving at Queensbury, and let us look with him at the busy scenes that would there greet his vision. He will probably be a little tired on reaching the Queensbury summit, and will like to rest a while and take a general survey of the place. He will doubtless stop somewhere near the Gothic fountain which Messrs. Foster raised in 1863 to commemorate the virtues of the late Prince Consort. This fountain, which is forty feet high, stands at the junction of the Bradford and Halifax and the Brighouse and Denholme Gate turnpike-roads; and as the visitor halts here and looks around him he sees some hundreds

of substantial stone-built cottages fronting the highways, or ranged in convenient well-paved streets which branch off at right angles therefrom, and seem well able to bear the brunt of wind and weather which they are constantly subjected to. On making inquiry of one of the stalwart villagers—everybody is stalwart and strong at Queensbury; it is no place for weaklings; *they* have to betake themselves to the valleys below—the visitor will be told that some four hundred of these cottages have either been built or are owned by the firm, who, as regards their cottages as well as their mills, have mostly been their own architects. If he allows himself still further to extend his survey he will see Prospect.House, the solid stone mansion which Mr. John Foster erected in the early part of his career, and which has come to be regarded by his descendants with all the affection of an ancestral home. Short as the history of this house has been, the associations connected with it are of a character well calculated to inspire the men whose fortunes have been linked therewith with feelings akin to those cherished by the possessor of an ancient name and title for the halls of his

progenitors. A little distance beyond is to be seen a more modern and more handsome building, in the Tudor style, enclosed in a somewhat extensive park. This is Harrowins House, the Queensbury residence of Mr. William Foster, and is now some quarter of a century old. Then there is the church of the Holy Trinity, which was built in 1842, and is largely supported by the Foster family; there is a "Hall of Freedom," a commodious public lecture-hall; there are the National Schools; and there are also many good shops and miscellaneous business premises scattered about on the most advantageous sites that the hill affords.

All these things, however, are but supplementary to the factories that have led to their creation, which from morn to night keep up a continuous buzzing and rumbling in the Black-dike hollow. The works do not burst upon the visitor's sight all at once and fill him with surprise, for as he approaches them from the road he finds a considerable portion of the establishment shut out from his view. When once he has penetrated the entrance-gates, however, he discovers that he is hemmed in on all sides by huge far-stretching

factory walls, which, with their myriads of windows, look down upon him from the four sides of an immense yard or quadrangle. To the right stretches the long *façade* of the Victoria and Shed Mills, now merged into one building, one portion of which is six stories, and the remainder five stories in height, having altogether a frontage of 473 feet. In a line parallel to the Victoria Mill can be seen some of the original factory buildings, looking venerable and time-honoured indeed beside the newer and more commodious erections which now rear their lofty walls around them; and a little further down there is a long range of warehouse buildings. Then there come boiler-houses, engine-houses, grease-works, dye-works, and what not; and on the side of the square nearest to the high road there is a handsome suite of offices. Going further afield, and exploring the ground that lies on the other side of the Victoria and Shed Mills, the visitor sees stretching before him two gigantic sheds, one of which is given up to the processes connected with woolcombing, and covers an area of 5,866 square yards; while the other is devoted entirely to weaving, spreading over 5,144 square yards and

affording accommodation for 1,000 looms. The extent and capacity of the works may perhaps be best illustrated by a few statistics. As has already been stated, the works comprise thirteen acres of flooring. Some 3,000 workpeople are employed in the various departments, and they absorb little short of 100,000*l.* a year in wages. In creating the steam-power necessary to carry on this extensive establishment not less than 10,000 tons of coal are consumed every year, or about 200 tons per week. A large proportion of this coal, it may be stated, is obtained from the firm's own collieries. The engines required for the running of the machinery represent a total indicated horse-power of over 1,600. The consumption at Black-dike in the way of raw material is something marvellous; about 15,000 packs of alpaca, mohair, English and other wools are manipulated there during a twelvemonth, and, after being wrought up into beautiful fabrics, are dispersed over all the countries of the world, lending new charms to female loveliness wherever they are seen, whether it be to form a chastely flowing garment for an Eastern beauty, or to adorn the figure of the most fashionably attired Parisian

belle. To what an extent Messrs. Foster go in the direction of assisting the world to dress is evidenced by the fact that their production of materials averages more than one piece per minute, equal to 4,500 miles of manufactured goods in a year. To follow the wools and the yarns from their entrance into the works to their exit is an instructive and interesting task for the visitor. He sees the wool piled up as it first comes in, having travelled in bales from the plains of South America, the valleys of Asia Minor, the snowy regions of Iceland, the swelling uplands of Africa, the wilds of Australia, or the more peaceful pastures of our own country; he sees it afterwards "sorted" into different qualities, according to the fineness of fibre; then sees it washed and made clean and lustrous by machines which consume 8,000 lbs. of soap per week, the said soap being made by Messrs. Foster at their own soap-works; he sees it subsequently carded and combed by ponderous machines; and finally, he sees it combined with cotton and other warps and woven into mohair, alpaca, stuff, or fancy fabrics, and rendered pleasant to the eye and delicate to the touch. It is worth while mentioning, too,

that the offices belonging to the establishment contain a telegraph-room, which, by the aid of ten miles' length of wire, is connected with the residences of the different members of the firm, with their warehouse in Bradford, and with the general telegraphic system of the country. In fact, all that science and enterprise, skill and energy, have been able to do in the way of promoting a commercial undertaking seems to have been done by Messrs. Foster. They have built up a business of great magnitude, have been the means of establishing a thriving industrial village, and have used the immense wealth which has rewarded their endeavours with a generous regard for the welfare of their servants no less than a due observance of the obligations which wealth enjoins upon its possessors generally.

Having now traced in rough outline how the Blackdike manufacturing business came to be established, and how, as the years went on, it expanded until the present high state of development was reached, it may be as well to devote a little more space to the subject of the *personnel* of the firm.

Of Mr. John Foster very little remains to be

added. He had no ambition apart from his business. For the rest, he lived a quiet homely life, and never aspired to the position of a public career, often as he must have been solicited, as his wealth and years increased, to allow himself to be brought into prominence. Taking broad views of the many social and political problems which arose during his day, he was tolerant in regard to any opinion that was sincerely and honestly advanced, and never identified himself with any kind of faction, or with any narrow party contentions. He had great clearness of perception, was a good reader of character, and always held in kindly remembrance those by whom he had been served. He was gentlemanly in appearance, and in his manner showed a happy combination of the brusque, outspoken, healthy-minded Yorkshireman and the thoughtful, unaffected, undemonstrative English gentleman of the more refined type. For something like half a century his tall form and cheery voice were familiar to the frequenters of the Bradford market, and for a still longer period he was a well-known figure in and around Queensbury, both in the works which he established and in the village it-

self. At all times anxious to advance the well-being of his workpeople, still he did not spoil them either by unduly petting them or by affecting too much patronage. He taught them the value of self-reliance, while amply supplying them with the means of helping themselves; and this system of unburdensome guardianship has been continued by his sons, with a result that must be highly gratifying to employers and employed. Queensbury contains probably more well-to-do workmen than any other industrial community of the same size in the country. Here, again, the geographical position of the place has been an advantage. The Queensburyites have been away from the general current of those smaller pleasures and amusements which are the means of wasting so much of the time of the working population of our large towns; and, with such examples of thrift and steady plodding as were constantly before them, it is hardly surprising that they should have settled down to ways of wisdom and economy. Mr. Foster studied his workpeople's needs much more than his own in periods of depression, and was glad that the largeness of his means enabled him to afford to "work to

stock" for their benefit, while many others were compelled to yield to the pressure of the times. The efforts that were thus made were, it need scarcely be said, duly appreciated, and are gratefully remembered. Mr. Foster used to familiarise himself with his people to an extent that few manufacturers of the modern stamp would ever think of doing. Not only did he acquaint himself with their domestic troubles and anxieties, their joys and comforts, but he would occasionally join them in their social gatherings, and was neither too proud to call in and have a friendly half-hour's chat with his poorer neighbours in their cottage homes, nor too self-absorbed to ask a workman after the health of his wife and children when he met him in the street. It was an enjoyable thing to spend a social evening with Mr. Foster at Prospect House; his kind and genial manner placed his guests at perfect ease, and the sincerity and earnestness of his conversation made him a most entertaining host. Nothing gave him greater gratification than to recount the more striking incidents of the commercial history of the first half of the century, a history in which he had played such a manly and important

part. Although a Churchman, he was not unmindful of the good Christian work which was carried on by other denominations; so, while we find that he took a leading part in the building of the Queensbury church (Holy Trinity) and the national schools, we also find that by gifts of land and donations he contributed very materially to the support of the Baptist and other places of worship in the village.

In 1861 Mr. John Foster, then in the sixty-fourth year of his age, bought the Hornby Castle estate, near Lancaster, one of the ancient possessions of the Stanleys, and went to reside there. He continued his connection with the works at Queensbury, however, down to the year 1869, when he finally retired, leaving his sons William, Jonas, Abram, and John to the entire control of the business. At Hornby his position was that of a large landed proprietor, the successor to a line of distinguished noblemen and county magnates; it was a linking together of "new men and old acres"—the accession to an ancient hall and patrimony of one who had earned in the field of industry almost as high and honoured a name as was won in battle by that Stanley of

Hornby who went forth from the castle with his faithful retainers to meet the enemy at Flodden Field. How well Mr. Foster fulfilled the duties appertaining to the ownership of such a large estate is sufficiently testified by the fact that, in January, 1877, after he had held the estate over sixteen years, the tenants on the Hornby estate presented Mr. Foster with an address, in which they expressed their high esteem of him as a landlord, and as one who had been "mainly instrumental in establishing new and lucrative industries" which had "widened and strengthened our country's greatness." The address went on to say: "The estate of which you are the proprietor, and we the tenants, may, perhaps, on its historic roll of owners exhibit names of more lordly sound, but none with truer right to say: 'Tis mine, not by inheritance, but by honest toil.'" There is something so suggestive, indeed, in this coupling of the name and fortune of a prince of industry with the fame and distinction connected with this historic pile and its ancient owners—it arouses so many interesting associations and contrasts—that we shall endeavour in our next article to compare

THE LATE MR. JOHN FOSTER.

the picture which Hornby presents to-day with the picture—or rather series of pictures—that were presented by it in the past.

Mr. John Foster never remained long away from his mountain home at Queensbury, however, but frequently returned to the scenes of his industrial activity; and in 1877 he relinquished the Hornby estate to his eldest son, Mr. William Foster, who has signalised his succession thereto by submitting the grand old house to a thorough overhauling and renovating, which, while it will not detract from its architectural outline or character, will have the effect of rendering the interior more in accordance with modern ideas of comfort, convenience, and health. Mr. John Foster, surrounded by his dearest associations, and in the midst of his workpeople, lived until the month of March, 1878, when he died at his old home, Prospect House, aged eighty-two. He was buried in the family vault in Queensbury church; his funeral was the most impressive sight that had ever been witnessed in the village. Mr. Foster was a justice of the peace for the counties of Yorkshire and Lancashire; but beyond such duties as occasionally fell to him in that capacity,

he seldom took part in any work of a public character.

We have already described to a great extent the part which Mr. William Foster, the present lord of Hornby and senior partner in the Black-dike firm, took in advancing the business founded by his father. Mr. William Foster may be said to have been cradled in business. He has had little else than business associations all his life up to a comparatively recent period. Even at school—where he was under the able tuition of Mr. Hinchliffe, a worthy and well-known name in the West Riding—his companions were mostly youths destined, like himself, to take responsible positions in great commercial houses. While with Mr. Hinchliffe he formed the acquaintance of Mr. Edward Akroyd, Mr. G. S. Beecroft, and Mr. (afterwards Sir) H. W. Ripley, each of whom subsequently became the head of a large business concern and was elected M.P.—one for Halifax, one for Leeds, and one for Bradford. The friendships then engendered between these afterwards-to-be-famous business men could not fail to have a beneficial influence; and when Mr. William Foster afterwards came

to join his father in the management of the Blackdike Works he displayed an amount of business aptitude and ability which was very remarkable. In every alteration and improvement which thenceforward took place in the establishment Mr. William Foster had a leading voice, and while still a comparatively young man he took up a position of great influence and honour both in the Bradford market and at Queensbury. The work he did in the development of the railway system we have already indicated. In educational matters he has also been a zealous worker, and for twenty-five years was trustee and manager of the Queensbury National Schools, in which capacity he did the village great service. Like his father, he has had no desire to bring himself into prominence before the public; still he has not been able to escape having conferred upon him some of those honours which are considered naturally to fall upon gentlemen holding high positions. He was for a time a vice-president of the Bradford Chamber of Commerce; he is a justice of the peace for the borough of Bradford, for the West Riding, and for the

county of Lancaster, and is likewise a Deputy-Lieutenant of Yorkshire and Lancashire.

In 1881, Mr. William Foster received the appointment of High Sheriff of Lancashire, which is generally considered the chief High Sheriffship in this country, entailing, as it does, official duties in connection with the three assize towns of Lancaster, Liverpool, and Manchester. This important post of state had in the past been filled by many men of high lineage and distinction, and in succeeding to the dignity Mr. Foster had a task of no little difficulty imposed upon him. The office, however, suffered no diminution of lustre at the hands of the owner of Hornby; the traditions and pageantry of the Shrievalty (which have in no part of England been so well preserved as in the county Palatine) being honoured by him in the most ample and liberal manner. On July 9th, 1881, Mr. Foster made his State entry into the county town to meet Her Majesty's judges, the day being observed as one of general rejoicing in the district. Open house was kept at Hornby Castle, and all the country-side, from the highest to the lowest, testified their

interest in the occasion. The village of Hornby had probably not witnessed such a time of excitement since the day when Edward Stanley and his faithful band set out from there on the campaign which had its victorious ending in Flodden Field. The houses and roads were profusely decorated with flags and banners, while here and there triumphal arches spanned the thoroughfares, showing a wealth of floral display which was very effective with the bright summer sunlight upon it. One archway, upon which the villagers had expended much loving labour and great taste, was called the people's arch, and bore on one side the inscription "Health and Happiness to the High Sheriff and His Lady," while on the other was displayed the family motto of the Fosters, "Justum perficito nihil timeto." By ten o'clock in the morning Hornby was crowded with visitors, who arrived in thousands by road and rail, and spread themselves over the landscape in the most picturesque fashion, the castle grounds, with their immense marquees, being one mass of people. It seemed as if for this one day, the good old-fashioned observances of our forefathers had been revived

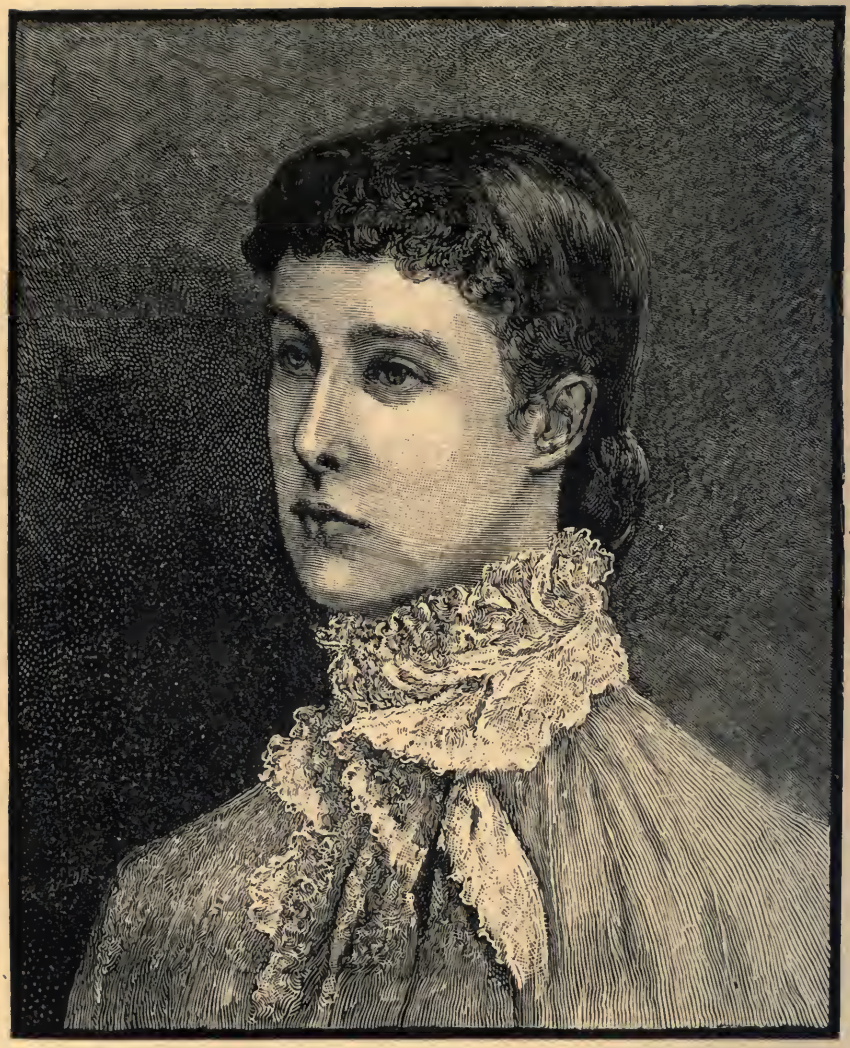
with all their ancient heartiness, and much more than their ancient splendour.

Some idea of the extent of the festivities may be gathered from the fact that over 2,500 people enjoyed the bounteous hospitality of the lord of Hornby on that day. Upwards of 500 ladies and gentlemen, including representatives of most of the leading county families, were entertained at the castle at a sumptuous breakfast, and the time-honoured halls of Hornby rang with cheers of enthusiastic greeting as the High Sheriff and Mrs. Foster took their places amongst them. The breakfast provided in the marquees erected in the grounds, to which the people generally were admitted without restriction, was also of the most liberal character. One marquee accommodated about 500 persons at a time, and a succession of guests followed each other there, helping themselves as they pleased to the good things with which the tables had been so plentifully supplied. Amongst the items of the bill of fare for this portion of the feast may be mentioned, six hundred gallons of beer, and forty cheeses. When this gigantic breakfast had been concluded, a scene

of great interest ensued in the marshalling of the procession, which at one o'clock made its start from the castle, headed by a large party of horsemen, the cavalcade being led by a number of county officials. A long line of one-horse vehicles came next, those of the tenantry going first; then followed a still longer file of two-horse carriages, the procession—which took three-quarters of an hour to pass a given point, and covered a space of two and a half miles—winding up with the High Sheriff's State equipage. The high-road all the way to Lancaster—a distance of nine miles—was crowded with spectators, and a vast multitude assembled in the streets of the county town to witness this imposing State entry. It was generally acknowledged that the demonstration from first to last was a complete realization of the best traditions of the Lancashire Shrievalty. Subsequently, Mr. Foster received the Judges at Manchester and Liverpool, and at every point upheld the dignity of the ancient office in a manner that had not been surpassed in recent times.

It was about this period that Mr. William

Foster originated a commercial movement which was destined to receive universal notice, and which bore good fruit not only in the worsted trade with which he himself was connected but throughout the country generally. The agricultural interests no less than the interests of our wool industries had been unfavourably affected by what may properly be called a national neglect of national products. There had been a depreciation of at least 6,500,000*l.* in the yearly value of the English wool production, and this was mainly due to the fact that the fabrics of France and Germany had been allowed, not from superiority of texture, but in blind obedience to the mandate of fashion which Paris had interestedly promulgated, to usurp the place which British lustre goods had once held in public favour. It was felt that much of this must be caused by the want, on the part of English leaders of fashion, of a proper appreciation of our true position, and it was with the view of remedying this that Mr. Foster took initiative in the movement referred to. This movement soon attracted the attention of the entire country, and a committee was formed



THE COUNTESS OF BECTIVE.

under Mr. Foster's presidency, and active steps were taken to bring the subject prominently into notice. Many high personages showed an interest in the matter, the first amongst whom was the Countess of Bective, who connected herself with the movement and rendered it most material assistance. The part her ladyship took in advocating and supporting the cause of home patronage for home productions was one for which her beauty, accomplishments, and position particularly qualified her. She threw herself into the movement with great enthusiasm, and her excellent example and untiring effort did much towards bringing about the desired change. Nor did her ladyship's exertions go unrewarded or unacknowledged.

When, in the first flush of the agitation, she paid a visit to Bradford—on which occasion she was the guest of Mr. Foster—her reception was of the most enthusiastic description, and the interest from that time evinced by her in local institutions and affairs has been very great, not even losing its hold when the excitement of what ultimately became known as the Bective Movement had to a considerable extent

passed away, as is instanced by her welcome presence at bazaar openings and other public celebrations from time to time in Bradford. When the country had been thoroughly roused to a sense of the situation, a large and influential meeting, presided over by the Marquis of Salisbury and which the Countess of Bective, Mr. Foster, and others took part in, was held at the Mansion House, and added additional force to the reaction.

The result of the movement set on foot by Mr. Foster, and so warmly taken up and agitated for a time, has not been altogether what was desired in regard to the British wool industries—although it has had an appreciable effect even in that direction—but it served to awaken a sense of patriotism in the public mind, and induced a desire for a recognition of goods of all classes of home production. Indeed, the term became of such common usage in trade that the old baits, "Paris Make," "French Goods," &c., with which drapers and others had been wont to lure their customers, were discarded for such notifications as "British Manufacture," "Home Fabrics," "English Stuffs," and the like. There is no longer any need

for the English manufacturer to seek to pass off his goods as of French make. That they are the products of English looms is now a recommendation for them, not, as before, a bar to their adoption. Mr. Foster did much by his personal exertions and influence to secure the change of attitude which has been effected in regard to the recognition of British productions. He contrived to keep the movement clear of all political complexion, and objected to have it identified with the anti-Free-Trade agitation which was contemporaneously before the public. What Mr. Foster and those who worked with him did was done in the true spirit of patriotism, and did not include within its scope anything of the feeling of retaliation which was part of the policy of the modern protectionists.

Mr. William Foster, at the general election of 1880, was waited upon at Hornby Castle by an important deputation, and desired to allow himself to be put in nomination as a candidate for North Lancashire, but he declined the honour. He has, however, since been forced into prominence in political quarters on many

occasions, and his countenance of political movements in the two counties where his position and influence are of much weight is always eagerly looked for. Mr. Foster has never been a violent partisan; he approaches politics with wide views and sympathies, and never sacrifices a question of general public good to mere party ends.

Amongst the Freemasons Mr. Foster has for a great number of years occupied a position of high honour. He was one of the founders of the Pentalpha Lodge (Bradford) and filled the position of Worshipful Master on the occasion of the visit of the Prince and Princess of Wales to Bradford in 1882, when an address was presented to their Royal Highnesses by the Yorkshire Freemasons. It ought also to be mentioned that in the matter of the restoration of Thornton Church (the living of which was held by the father of Charlotte Brontë at the time of the future novelist's birth) Mr. Foster, in his private as well as in his Masonic capacity, concerned himself greatly, and took a leading part in the foundation stone laying which was performed by the Marquis of Ripon (then Earl De Grey).

Mr. Foster has also taken an active part in promoting the movement for a memorial tower to the late Lord Frederick Cavendish, to be erected at Bolton; and has evinced a strong interest in musical matters, having been on the committee of the Bradford Subscription Concerts (which are conducted by Mr. Charles Hallé) for many years, and having, in connection with the formation of the Royal College of Music, done much to help the project forward, assisting especially in the work of establishing a local centre of operation for that institution.

Mr. Jonas Foster, the second son (afterwards Major Johnston Jonas Foster), was taken into partnership in 1850, and for many years took a very prominent part in the direction of the Blackdike concern. Apart from his business life, he showed great activity in promoting the advancement of Church affairs, and some years ago built a very handsome church at Lightcliffe at his own expense. He was also one of the most vigorous supporters of the Volunteer movement in its various forms, and for a considerable period was major of the 2d West York Yeomanry Cavalry, the fine body of men com-

manded by Lieutenant-Colonel Sir Henry Edwards, Bart. Major Foster won the confidence and esteem of his corps by the intelligent manner in which he devoted himself to military matters, no less than by his kindliness of disposition and general solicitude for the welfare of the men under him. The residences of Major Foster were Cliffe Hill, near Halifax, and Moor Park, near Ludlow in Shropshire. He was a magistrate for the West Riding, and also for Shropshire. Major Foster died on February 26th, 1880, at Cannes, much regretted.

Mr. Abram Briggs Foster, the third son, has been connected with the Blackdike firm since the year 1852, and has long been one of the leading spirits in its management. He was at one time captain of the 6th West York Militia, and is a magistrate for the county of Stafford and the West Riding of Yorkshire. Some years since he purchased the Canwell Hall estate in Staffordshire, and this is his principal residence. His other residence is Northowram Hall, Yorkshire. Of late years he has taken much interest in railway affairs, and is at the present time a director of the Great Northern Company.

Mr. John Foster, junior, the fourth son, who resides at Priestley Green, near Halifax, and at Egton Lodge, near Whitby, became a partner in 1855. He seems to have inherited the business instincts of the family, and employs himself actively in the management of the Blackdike establishment. A short time ago he bought a residential estate called Coombe Park, near Reading, situated on the Thames.

Mr. A. B. Foster, and Mr. John Foster, junior, it may likewise be mentioned, are the joint owners of an extensive and valuable property near Whitby, known as the Egton estate, comprising over 13,000 acres; and in the first week of December, 1879, the Archbishop of York consecrated a new church at Egton, which the owners of the estate had built at a cost of 5,000*l*. It was built on the site of an ancient edifice, dating from about the year 1100, and will for generations to come remain a monument to the munificence of its founders. They have also erected beautiful schools there.

Four of the sons of Mr. William Foster—Messrs. William Henry Foster, Robert John Foster, Frederick Charles Foster, and Herbert

Anderton Foster—have in recent years succeeded to important positions in connection with the Blackdike Works, and in showing much of the business skill and general capacity which have distinguished their predecessors, afford some guarantee that the great manufacturing concern at Queensbury will continue in capable hands.

The achievements of the Fosters, indeed, have been of a really stupendous character; they have not only built up fortunes for themselves by their business tact and energy, their intelligence and foresight, but have created a means of comfortable livelihood for a large industrial community. Their aims have been high, and with manful confidence they have borne themselves gallantly onward, until, by persistent labour and application, they have won commercial honours of the worthiest description. They have contributed largely to the national prosperity by their business genius, and in all they have done have shown themselves true pioneers and benefactors.

HORNBY CASTLE.

HORNBY CASTLE.

HORNBY CASTLE.

IT is pleasant to turn aside from the bustling pathways of commerce, the clangour of looms, the hum of spindles, and the chatter and excitement of the exchange, to the lordly retirement and repose of an historic mansion which has been able to preserve to itself the principal features of its original surroundings. Such a mansion is Hornby Castle, which for about a quarter of a century has been the country seat of the head for the time being of the Foster family of Queensbury, whose successful and distinguished business careers we endeavoured to sketch in our last chapter. The sentiment and instinct which impelled the Fosters to select the time-honoured walls of Hornby as their place of rustication were in accordance with the general aims and attainments of their lives. Vigour, substantiality, and endurance had characterised their efforts

to establish an industrial colony at Queensbury, a region theretofore regarded as inaccessible to commercial enterprise; and the same qualities were reflected in the towers and turrets of Hornby, with the associations of centuries long gone by clinging to them, and the prospect of abiding for centuries to come. Hornby Castle had experienced many vicissitudes, it is true, in its time; still it had escaped many of the indignities which similar ancestral halls had suffered in the course of the ebbs and flows of sovereign authority; and the connection of its owners with the stirring events of English history had not been of a nature to imperil its existence.

Most castles with the same length of pedigree have by this either fallen to decay and become the sacred haunts of poets, painters, and dreamers, or have had their beauties encroached upon and put into unhealthy shadow by the building up of great towns and cities around them. A happier destiny has attended Hornby; still

> "This castle hath a pleasant seat, the air
> Nimbly and sweetly recommends itself
> Unto our gentle senses."

and, as in the days of the Plantagenets and the Tudors, there yet lies open before it a grand

sweep of verdant pasture-lands and beautiful woods, where stately rivers and quick-rushing mountain-streams divide the landscape into picturesque patches, and where secluded hamlets peep forth from bowers of clustering leafage; while, towering in kingly grandeur over all, stands mighty Ingleborough, its summit shielded by a cap of cloud. Here time has not assumed the *rôle* of the despoiler, and the march of modern progress has not been in antagonism to Nature. Neither factory chimneys nor smoky towns obtrude upon the view in this pleasant part of the valley of the Lune; the only evidence of the improving hand of the mechanical inventor is that which is afforded by the railway train as it rushes over its level tract to or from the ancient city of Lancaster, some nine miles distant.

Standing apart somewhat from the general field of historical inquiry and antiquarian research, Hornby has not of late years attracted that share of attention which is justly its due. Its restoration by Mr. William Foster, however, to something like its old importance as a residential property, and the fact that new associations of

an interesting character have grown up around it during the present century, entitle it more than ever to be held in memory. These considerations have prompted us to attempt to recall the leading incidents in the past history of the castle and of its successive owners, and to offer some account of its present condition and aspect, as well as to give a few side pictures of the village of Hornby and the surrounding neighbourhood, and of one or two notable residents.

The situation of Hornby is commanding and picturesque in the extreme. Dr. Whitaker was of opinion that it surpassed Windsor in variety of landscape. It is a prominent object for miles round, and, standing boldly forth from a mass of trees on a hill which rises in striking amplitude from the river Wenning, is clearly visible from the railway. There are several favourite points of view for seeing Hornby. Turner seems to have been particularly impressed by the beauty of the castle and its surroundings. He drew them from three or four different positions, and contrived to invest the venerable pile and the scene that it embraced with that tender and exquisite dreaminess which was at

once the peculiarity and the marvel of his genius. The three drawings which he made of Hornby for Whitaker's *Richmondshire*, in 1820 and 1821, are considered, by Turner's biographer, as some of his finest works. The view of the "Crook of Lune, leading to Hornby Castle," shows a vast expanse of undulating pastures, with a silvery gleam of river winding through the landscape, and the sturdy towers of Hornby peering out from the side of a wooded hill. Another of Turner's views of Hornby is taken from Tatham Church; and the third of the Hornby series, being a view of "Ingleborough from Hornby Castle Terrace," is spoken of by Mr. Ruskin as unsurpassable. In days anterior to the railway era, indeed, Hornby Castle was always an object of attraction to travellers going northward by Lancaster; and scattered over our literature are to be found many interesting references to the place. Dr. Whitaker, taking in the entire scene at a glance, says, "The noble windings of the river, the fruitful alluvial lands upon its banks, the woody and cultivated ridge which bounds it to the north-west, the striking feature of Hornby Castle in front, and, above

all, the noble form of Ingleborough, certainly form an assemblage of features not united to compose any rival scenery in the kingdom." The poet Gray halted in his travels to have a look at the castle. He says, "I came to Hornby, a little town on the Wenning, over which a handsome bridge is now building; the castle, in a lordly situation, attracted me, so I walked up the hill to it: first presents itself a large white, ordinary-sashed gentleman's house, and behind it rises the ancient keep, built by Edward Stanley, Lord Monteagle. He died about 1529, in King Henry VIII.'s time. It is now only a shell, the rafters are laid within it as if for flooring. I went up a winding stone staircase, in one corner to the leads, and at the angle is a stone single hexagon watch-tower, rising some feet higher, fitted up in the taste of a modern summer-house, with sash-windows in gilt frames, a stucco cupola, and on the top a vast gilt eagle, built by Mr. Charteris, the present possessor." This was in 1765. Both the stucco cupola and the "vast gilt eagle" are now gone, and the mansion, as well as the ancient keep, has been rendered worthy of its historic fame; the hand of the restorer

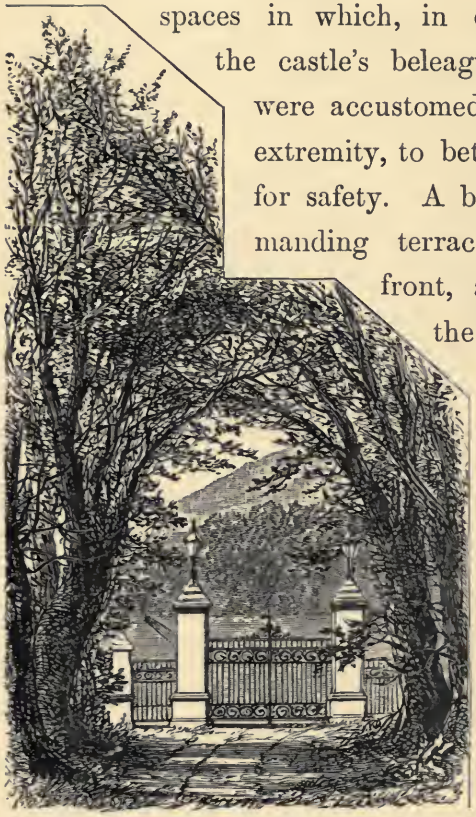
having, in this case, been inspired by a desire to preserve rather than efface the old, and, in adding to, to adhere strictly to the character of the original building. Mrs. Radcliffe, the Salvator Rosa of British novelists, as she has been called, visited Hornby in 1795, and, with more of romantic colouring than Gray indulged in, subsequently recorded her impressions of the place. The author of the *Mysteries of Udolpho*, always at home in descriptions of ancient castles and their surroundings, speaks of the vale of Lonsdale as "mild, delicate, and reposing, like the countenance of a Madonna." The castle itself seemed to her "thin" and "topling" as she saw it "amongst the wood, at a considerable distance, with a dark hill rising over it." She adds, "What remains of the old edifice is a square gray building, with a slender watch-tower, rising in one corner like a feather in a hat, which joins the modern mansion of white stone, and gives it a singular appearance by seeming to start from the centre of its roof. In front a steep lawn descends between avenues of old wood, and the park extends along the skirts of the craggy hill that towers above." Going

back to an earlier time, we find Leland describing the castle as "on a hill strongly buildid and well repaired;" and Camden alludes to it as "a noble castle."

This remarkable monument of antiquity stands not far from the little railway station of Hornby. The village has an old-world look about it, and consists of a single street or lane, bordered by neat cottages, with here and there a clump of trees breaking in upon the view. The first building of importance that the visitor comes upon in his walk towards the castle is a large new school which has been built by Mr. Foster, and seems extensive enough to accommodate the entire population, young and old. Going forward, we arrive at the Wenning, and stand upon the bridge which was in course of construction in the poet Gray's time. From this picturesque bridge of three arches the full front of the castle, with its terrace, its park, and its avenues of stately elms, planted by Lord Wemyss in the early part of the last century, stands open to the view. The river sweeps close beneath the north-east side of the castle-walls, the precipitous height which intervenes between the stream and the building at

this point being covered with thick-spreading foliage; then the waters turn away from the castle, leaving ample park space in front of the edifice, and flow gently on underneath the bridge and forward till the Wenning merges itself in the more majestic Lune — "the long-wand'ring Lone," as Drayton sings, or, as the more musical Spenser calls it, "the shallow stony Lone." As we stand on the bridge, looking at the fine old structure "frowning with all its battlements" down upon us, we cannot but be impressed by its imposing appearance. It is a feudal fortress with a mansion of a more modern period added. The keep, with the picturesque eagle-tower tacked on to it, stands high above the main building, forming a broad and solid outline against the sky; and the newer buildings of occupation, as they nestle underneath the old feudal tower, present a bold and handsome frontage, prettily broken up with towers, turrets, battlements, and projecting wings and mullioned windows, making a pleasant intermingling of light and shade, beauty and diversity. The new wing on the north-east side has just been built by Mr. William

Foster, who has also had the keep rendered habitable; thus providing floor upon floor of splendid rooms in place of the tumble-down spaces in which, in days gone by, the castle's beleaguered garrison were accustomed, in their last extremity, to betake themselves for safety. A broad and commanding terrace stretches in front, and below lies the heavy foliaged park with its avenue of "immemorial elms."



ENTRANCE GATEWAY.

Such is the aspect of the castle to-day, as presented to those who view it from the village bridge. The park is entered a little distance above, where a handsome new gateway and commodious lodge have been erected, whence the

castle is approached through a sloping high-arched avenue of trees of wondrous beauty.

In point of internal attractiveness, Hornby Castle, advantaged by the good taste and ample means of its present lord, has now probably greater charms for the searcher of the beautiful than ever it had. Without entering into a minute description of the various apartments of this extensive mansion, a brief enumeration of some of their main features may not be altogether out of place.

After the entrance-hall has been passed the visitor finds himself in a spacious dining-hall, with its massive carved roof, its huge fireplace, and superbly-ornamented mantel. The emblematical roses of York and Lancaster are interwoven with the general decorative design, and a bold and substantial dado of many carvings runs round the room, and upon shields set at regular intervals are painted the coat-of-arms of the successive owners of the Hornby estate—lords of the honour or manor of Hornby, one of the most extensive and important manors in Lancashire—from 1066 downwards. To the right of the dining-hall is the library, a lofty

and handsome room, which, commanding as it does one of the most beautiful prospects in the north of England, might well serve as a happy vantage-ground for the musings of the poet or the communings of the philosopher. In the opposite wing of the castle is the Magistrates' Room, where the lords of Hornby have been accustomed to administer justice, as by law directed, or to exact those manorial privileges which had descended to them from their lordly predecessors. Reception-rooms, anterooms, and a great labyrinth of domestic offices stretch behind; and on the floor above is the principal drawing-room, wherein the bright, elegant, and costly decorations, and rich upholsterings, form a striking contrast to the more massive ornamentation of the large hall below. Boudoirs, *salons*, galleries, and far-reaching corridors, bounded by bedrooms large enough for the accommodation of giants, succeed each other in the rear and at the sides of the drawing-room; and diving down again to the ground-floor, and getting away to the back, beyond a luxuriously fitted up series of bathrooms and lavatories, of sufficient extent and diversity for a hydropathic

establishment, we come upon the great frowning inner walls of the keep itself. These walls are six feet in thickness, and the name, motto, and crest of the builder, Sir Edward Stanley, the first Lord Monteagle, are found legibly chiselled upon them. Ascending the winding staircase, with its narrow window-slits showing through the solid masonry every now and then and looking in at the story after story of immense rooms which have been made in the interior of the keep, we bit by bit make the entire ascent, and reach the summit of the topmost tower.

From this height the outlook is most captivating. Spreading from the rocky base of the tower we see a landscape of great extent and beauty;

"Wild plains, fair trees, and lawny slopes"

present themselves to the eye in exquisite alternation. The principal portion of the Hornby estate can here be overlooked, including in the prospect the pretty village of Hornby itself, resting in the shadow of the castle; the fine expanse of wood through which the Hindburn runs, and which, on account of the romantic

nature of the dells and glens and precipitous crags that are hidden there amongst the trees, is known as Little Switzerland; the pretty villages of Wray and Tatham; a vast extent of moorland melting away in the purple distance, where the lord of Hornby and his friends can enjoy some of the best shooting that is to be had in the country; while, grim and mighty, making its presence felt most obtrusively of all, stands the mountain form of Ingleborough sentinel-like away to the north.

It was probably from this point, if not from this eminence, that Drayton, in the sixteenth century, viewed the valley of the Lune. He says in his *Polyolbion:*

"When Lae, the most loved child of this delicious dale,
And Wenning, on the way present their eithers spring;
Next them she Henburne hath, and Roburne, which do bring
Their bounties in one bark their mistress to prefer,
That she with greater state may come to Lancastre."

In all these streams there is an abundance of fish—salmon, trout, &c.; and the owners of Hornby have always regarded their rights in this respect of great value. The Hornby Castle estate altogether, under its present proprietorship, comprises over 5,000 acres; and Mr. Foster, lord of the honour and manor of

Hornby, the manor of Tatham, and the manor of Burton in Lonsdale, and the forest of Mewith, possesses shooting rights extending far beyond the Hornby Castle estate; he also has the right of presentation to the livings of Hornby and Tatham. Since Mr. Foster acquired the Hornby estate he has added to it by purchase to a considerable extent and the domain appurtenant to the castle is at the present time much larger than when Mr. John Foster made the original purchase.

Leaving for a while our perch upon the eagle-tower, to search the records of history and romance, and con the evidence of musty deeds and ancient muniments, we endeavour to read the story of the past concerning this castle of Hornby.

Whitaker considers that the site of the castle was unquestionably occupied by the Romans, the finding of coins and brick pavement sufficiently proving the fact. He thinks it was probably the villa of some wealthy provincial on the line of the Roman way from the Setantiorum Portus to Bremetonacæ. He does not deem it too bold a conjecture, either, to suppose that in a position

nearer the junction of the Wenning with the Lune stood the castle of Horne, the first founder of Hornby; and that that being abandoned during the devastations of the Danes, the first Norman possessor found in an insulated natural hill, on the bank of the Wenning, a site better adapted to the genius of fortification in his age. In the Domesday Survey, Hornby, Melling, and Wennington are returned as forming one manor in the West Riding of Yorkshire among the lands of the king, of whom Ulf is found to hold nine carucates or ploughlands, and Orme one carucate and a half there. The name of Ulf is perpetuated in the district by a place known as Wolfa Crag. The barony of Hornby was undoubtedly, after the Conquest, carved out of the honour of Lancaster by its lord and granted to one of his knights, to be held of him by feudal service. The name of this first Norman lord of Hornby is involved in obscurity, but in the reign of Henry II. the estate is found to be in the possession of the family of Montbegon. Roger de Montgomery, Earl of Poitou, was the first Baron of Lancaster after the accession of the Conqueror; and it is probable either that the Montbegon family acquired a grant

of Hornby and other lands directly from the Earl, or that the estate came to them through the marriage of Adam de Montbegon, *tempore* Henry II. with the daughter of Adam Fitz Swaine, son of Swaine and grandson of Ailric, who was a landholder in Yorkshire contemporary with the Earl of Poitou.

The possession by the Montbegon family of the Honour of Hornby continued without any circumstances demanding special notice until the death of Roger de Montbegon in 1225-6 (10 Hen. III.), when the castle and manor of Hornby were committed to the custody of Earl Warren. In the following year, Henry de Montbegon (also named Monegheden and Munden) being found to be his cousin and heir, Earl Warren was commanded by the King's writ to surrender to him the possession of Hornby. Shortly afterwards Henry de Monegheden, or Montbegon, conveyed the Honour of Hornby to Hubert de Burgh, a name, it will be remembered, which Shakespeare has used with powerful effect in *King John*. Hubert de Burgh was Earl of Kent, and the grant of Hornby was made to him and his wife Margaret, and their heirs. In 1231 Hubert fell under the displeasure

of the King, and his lands were forfeited; but in 1233, after the reversal of his outlawry, Hubert obtained restitution of the estate, which he continued to enjoy until his death in 1242, when the King again assumed possession, but immediately afterwards restored the property to Hubert de Burgh's widow, Margaret, Countess of Kent. The Countess appears to have held the castle and lands of Hornby until her death in the 44th Hen. III. when her son and heir, John de Burgh, found himself involved in litigation with Elena, widow of John de Lungvillers, concerning the ownership of the estate.

This litigation throws a considerable light upon the high-handed style of the Plantagenet lords. Elena de Lungvillers claimed the third part of the manors, castle, and lands of Hornby and Melling as her dower, conferred upon her, she asserted, on the day of her marriage by her husband, John de Lungvillers. It was pleaded in answer that John de Lungvillers was never possessed of the property, except by an intrusion which he made after the death of Roger de Montbegon, "whose right the said lands were;" and that Henry de Monegheden, cousin and heir of Roger, afterwards ejected John

therefrom, and held the same as his inheritance, until John "brought an assize of disseizen" and obtained a verdict in his favour by a suborned jury, which verdict was subsequently set aside as false by a second jury, by whose verdict Henry de Monegheden had recovered possession. To this Dame Elena replied by alleging that Roger de Montbegon before his death enfeoffed her husband of the property, and that the latter had possession thereof more than a year before Henry de Monegheden, by the power of Hubert de Burgh, ejected him; and further, she contended, that the verdict given by the first jury was truly made, but that, notwithstanding, her husband could not obtain seizin, "owing to the power of Hubert de Burgh."

The result of this litigation has not been discovered, but another action was subsequently brought by Dame Elena de Lungvillers's granddaughter, Margaret (wife of Geoffrey de Nevill), to recover possession of the Honour of Hornby, and she succeeded in her suit. As the grounds of this decision must have been the truth of the allegations made by Elena de Lungvillers, it is probable that her action was successful also. The alleged

relationship of Geoffrey de Nevill (husband of Margaret de Lungvillers) to the family of De Burgh, derived, according to a pedigree of the seventeenth century, through a marriage of one of his ancestors with the sister of the Earl of Kent, may have led to a compromise of the dispute. This, at any rate, is evident, that Geoffrey and Margaret de Nevill were put in possession of the Honour of Hornby at the close of the reign of Henry III. The Nevills, into whose family Hornby was thus brought, were a younger branch of the Nevills of Raby, afterwards Earls of Westmoreland.

Geoffrey de Nevill died in 1285, and his widow, Margaret de Nevill, became Lady of the Honour of Hornby. She died in 1318, and was succeeded in the tenancy of Hornby by John de Nevill, her grandson. It is recorded that in 1323 two of the rebels who joined Thomas, Earl of Lancaster, in his insurrection against the King, were taken to Hornby Castle, and there being found to be Scotchmen were allowed their liberty. John de Nevill died in 1335, and Sir Robert de Nevill followed him in the ownership of the estate. In 1351 Sir Robert leased to Henry, Duke of Lancas-

ter, for the term of his life, the manors and castle of Hornby "by the service of a rose." This was in reality a mortgage transaction, and on the Duke's decease the obligation had been discharged. Another Sir Robert de Nevill, probably the son of the former Sir Robert, was in possession of Hornby early in the fourteenth century; and in 1413 the Escheator of the County Palatine of Lancaster declared that Margaret, daughter of Sir Thomas Nevill (son of the second Sir Robert) and wife of Thomas Beaufort, Earl of Dorset (afterwards Duke of Exeter), was entitled to the property. The next in succession was Margaret, wife of Sir William Harrington, the Duchess of Exeter's aunt. On the death of the Duke, who outlived his wife, the Honour of Hornby became vested in Sir William Harrington, in right of his wife, and Sir John Langton, cousin of Lady Harrington, and a deed of partition was executed between the parties in 1433, whereby Hornby fell to the Harringtons.

During the Wars of the Roses, the Harringtons of Hornby allied themselves with the Yorkists, and suffered severely in the long internecine struggle. Dr. Whitaker says, that Sir William

Harrington was killed at Agincourt; but this is obviously an error. Margaret, Lady Harrington, died in 1450. Her son and successor, Sir Thomas Harrington, together with his eldest son, Sir John Harrington, received their death-blow while fighting side by side under the banner of the White Rose at the battle of Wakefield, in 1460. Sir John left two daughters, Anne and Elizabeth, aged respectively nine and eight, his heiresses. Sir James Harrington, however, the paternal uncle of these young ladies, took forcible possession of Hornby, and claimed to be its lawful owner; but, on an appeal for protection to the Court of Chancery, Sir James, and a tool of his who had assisted him in his designs, were committed to the Fleet prison. The wardship of the heiresses and the custody of their inheritance were granted to Thomas, Lord Stanley, who married the eldest daughter, Anne, to his third son, Sir Edward Stanley, and the youngest, Elizabeth, to his nephew, John Stanley.

In 1470 (49 Henry VI.) Hornby Castle underwent a siege. The King ordered a cannon called Mile End to be sent from Bristol to the

assistance of Sir Thomas Stanley, who had orders to reduce the castle. What force held possession of the castle at that time is not recorded, but Sir Thomas Stanley's own interest in the place was probably sufficient to preserve it from destruction. It might be during one of the periods when Sir James Harrington held the castle that the siege took place. Sir James, who was greatly disliked by the Lancastrians for having been the means of discovering the hiding-place of Henry VI., proved a very thorn in the flesh to his two nieces; he was or ever harassing them by forcible entries and vexatious litigation. He alleged that Sir Thomas Harrington had before his death executed a deed which conveyed his estates to trustees for the benefit of his next heirs male; and that the eldest son, Sir John, having died without male issue, he, Sir James, was the next heir male. This deed, it was said, had been intrusted to the custody of a trustworthy servant, who subsequently produced it. Sir James's claim was unsuccessful, but was renewed at a later date by his son John, which John, it was popularly supposed,

was put to death by poison, by Sir Edward Stanley's promptings, for fear of his succeeding to the Hornby estates. There is a large amount of documentary evidence, however, existing that goes against this suspicion, although Dr. Whitaker favours the popular idea. There was much litigation and diplomatising for the next year or two; but ultimately Sir Edward Stanley, in right of his wife, Anne, and otherwise, became possessed of the entire Honour of Hornby, as well as of other lands adjacent thereto.

We have now arrived at a period when history left its special mark upon the records of Hornby. Up to this time, despite the frequent change of owners and the worry of family disputes, the old fortress had kept up its state and dignity, and the lords of Hornby and their retainers had indulged in the excitement of the chase in the woods and forests around. Many a gay cavalcade would in those days set out from the grey old castle, and, to the sound of the horn and the baying of the hounds, would sally forth in pursuit of the deer, the roe, or other favourite animals of the chase. But the

day had now come for the inhabitants of this luxuriant valley to have their hearts stirred by sounds of more ominous meaning. Many a time had the men of Lunesdale been called upon to repel the Scots in their plundering raids across the border; but now, in face of the threatened incursion by James IV. of Scotland, they were summoned by their lords to go out to do battle with the Scots in their own country. It was then, as the old ballad tells, that

> "From Lancashire and Cheshire fast,
> They to the lusty Stanley drew;
> From Hornby whereas he in hast
> Set forward with a comely crew.
>
> "What banners brave before him blazed!
> The people mused where he did pass;
> Poor husbandmen were much amazed,
> And women wond'ring cried, 'Alas!'
>
> "Young wives did weep in woeful cheer,
> To see their friends in harness drest;
> Some rent their cloaths, some tore their hair,
> Some held their babes unto their brest."

Sir Edward Stanley had been well schooled in arms, and had early gained the favour of the King, whose greeting when they met was, "Ho, my soldier!" It is said of him that "the camp was his school, and his learning the pike and sword." His greatest enemies would not

deny his valour. Stanley marched gallantly forward with his brave men; and when they came to "Flodden's fatal field," and all the Earl of Surrey's army were ranged in order of battle, Stanley was directed to the command of the rear portion of the English forces, and to him, more perhaps than any other single commander, that day's memorable victory was due. Scott has enshrined Stanley's deeds at Flodden in imperishable verse. Few couplets are better known than that which tells us that

> "'Charge, Chester, charge! On, Stanley, on!'
> Were the last words of Marmion."

So sudden and unexpected was the onslaught which Stanley made that the Scots were at once put into great disorder. The ballad before alluded to says,

> "'With him did pass a mighty pow'r,
> Of soldiers seemly to be seen.
>
> "Most lively lads in Lonsdale bred,
> With weapons of unwieldly weight;
> All such as Tatham fells had fed
> Went under Stanley's streamer bright.
>
> "From Bowland billmen bold were boun,
> With such as Botton-Banks did hide
> From Wharemore up to Whitington,
> And all to Wenning water-side.

"From Silverdale to Kent Sand side,
Whose soil is sown with cockle-shells;
From Cartmel eke and Conny-side
With fellows fierce from Furnace fells.

"All Lancashire for the most part,
The lusty Stanley stout did lead;
A stock of striplings, strong of heart,
Brought up from babes with beef and bread."

Stanley's neighbour of Thurland Castle, Brian Tunstall, a sort of Lancastrian Bayard, whom Scott calls the "stainless knight," fell in the battle.

One can well imagine the fervour of the welcome which would be given to the braw Lancashire lads as they came back, flushed with victory, to their homes in and around Hornby, and what festive doings there would be at the castle when "stout Stanley" took his place again within its ancient walls as Lord Monteagle, the title with which his sovereign readily awarded him on his return from Flodden. The title was suggested by the fact that his ancestors had borne an eagle on their crest; and the eagle's claw and the motto,

GLAV ET GANT.

E. STANLEY

appear on the north-east of the old keep.

Tradition has busied itself considerably with

Lord Monteagle's name. The generally received opinion is that the beautiful octagonal tower of Hornby Church was built by him in obedience to a vow made at Flodden ; but there exists a legend which points to another cause for its erection. He filled a large space in the history of his time. "Twice," it is recorded, "did he and Sir John Wallop penetrate, with only 800 men, into the very heart of France ; and four times did he and Sir Thomas Lovell save Calais—the first time by intelligence, the second by stratagem, the third by their valour and undaunted courage, and the fourth by their unwearied patience and assiduity." We also learn that "in the dangerous insurrection by Aske and Captain Cobler, his zeal for the prince's service and the welfare of his country caused him to outstrip his sovereign's commands by putting himself at the head of his troops without the King's commission, for which dangerous piece of loyalty he asked pardon, and received thanks." Still, in spite of all this distinction and prosperity, the common people repeated dark insinuations against his name ; for not only was he suspected of having resorted to foul means to get rid of the

heir of the Harringtons, but he was supposed to hold secret and unholy communings with things of evil.* He was said to be a materialist and a free-thinker; and one night, as the legend goes, "by the still light of a cloudless harvest moon," two men ascended the steep path leading to the castle. A light was visible from the high watch-tower, where Lord Monteagle was accustomed to keep his nightly vigils. The men advanced over the drawbridge; and while some half-dozen hoarse-throated dogs met them with their loud bayings, they passed forward and ascended the winding staircase to the turret-chamber. There, surrounded by furnaces, alembics, crucibles, and other instruments of mystery, they saw, by the light of a dim lamp, the figure of the lord of Hornby seated before a table. One of the two men was a popular divine, known as the parson of Slaidburn; the other was Maudsley, Lord Monteagle's faithful servitor. The latter was bidden to retire; and then the baron entered into a long argument with the parson about the mysteries of existence and the far-reaching speculations concerning immortality. Lord

* Roby's *Legends and Traditions of Lancashire.*

Monteagle declared the Bible to be a forgery, and religion a mere priestcraft and superstition; and the parson retorted by telling the baron that he only held those views because they flattered his wishes and his fears. "Fears! What fears?" demanded Lord Monteagle. "The fear of facing the spirit of thy lady's cousin," said the priest; "his blood yet crieth from the ground!" The hero of Flodden, the legend says, turned pale, trembled, and drew his sword; but the undaunted minister heeded not the action. "Put up thy sword," he said; "thou hast enow of sins to repent thee of without an old man's blood added to the number." Lord Monteagle, chafing under the parson's words, said, after a pause: "My cousin, John Harrington, died in his own chamber. In this house, God wot. Thou didst shrive him at his last shift, and how sayest thou he was poisoned?" The priest answered, "I said not aught so plainly;" then, with a sudden movement, he cried: "Behold him there!" The baron glared wildly around, and his brow became suffused with a clammy perspiration. Whether any object was actually to be seen, or whether the priest had merely resorted to a trick

in order to frighten Lord Monteagle, tradition does not say; but from that time forth it was known that the baron was an altered man, and immediately afterwards arose the noble church of Hornby, with its beautiful octagon tower, which still bears upon its front the following inscription:

"Edwardus Stanley miles, Dns.
Monteagle me fieri fecit."

There is little doubt, whatever may have been Sir Edward Stanley's views concerning religion at the time alluded to, he died in the full recognition of the Christian faith. This is sufficiently evidenced by his will, dated April 5th, 1523, the opening sentences of which are worth quoting on this head. "It is necessarie," it runs, "and requisite for every good true Christian man to provide, foresee, and to ordain for ye life ev'lasting in heaven. I, therefore, Edward Stanley, Knt., Lord Monteagle, Knt., of the Order of the Garter, being hale and of good deliberation, and of perfect minde and memorie—laude, therefore, and praise be to Almighty God, my maker and redeemer, the good and sweet intelligence of these sentences: Memento homo, quod cinis es, et, in cineris reverteris, and of this, Domine tuæ

. . . . quia morieres: willing while reson ruleth in my minde, and quietness in the members of my bodie, of my temporal goods somewhat to ordain for ye good of my sowle, do ordaine this my last will," &c. He bequeathed his soul "to Almightie God, the glorious and eternal Trinitie, to our Ladie St. Marie, moder of M'cie, St. Margarete, and to all ye saintes in heaven;" ordered his body to be buried in Hornby Chapel, which he directed his executors to complete—a trust which, unfortunately, they did not fulfill, from some cause or other; gave "black gowns to his servants, children, and friends;" and ordered that "xxiv white gownes be geven to xxiv poor honest men to bear torches." "Alsoe to ye most excellent prince and my sovereign good lord Kynge Henrie VIII., a small gold ring, with a table of a dyamond viii square sett in ye same, and cl in gold, beseeching his grace to pray for my sowle, and to bee good and gracious, good lorde, unto my sonne and heeir."

Lord Monteagle died at Hornby in the same year, 1523, and his son Thomas, who was only fifteen years of age at this time, succeeded him. Whitaker's statement that this second

Lord Monteagle was rumoured to be the person who struck the fatal blow which killed King James IV. at Flodden must therefore be incorrect. Thomas, Lord Monteagle, held the Honour of Hornby from 1523 to 1559 (2nd Elizabeth), when he died, and his son William came into the inheritance. William, Lord Monteagle, held the Hornby estates until his death, about 1580. His daughter and only child, Elizabeth, married to Edward Parker, Lord Morley, succeeded him. The next Lord of Hornby was their son William, who acquired the estate on his father's death in 1618. William, Lord Monteagle and Morley, like his grandfather, Sir Edward Stanley, was destined to become historically famous. Camden says, "We and our posterity must acknowledge [him] to have been born for the good of the whole kingdom. For, from an obscure letter privately sent to him, and by him most opportunely produced, the wickedest plot which the most accomplished villany could contrive was detected when the kingdom was on the eve of destruction, when certain wretches, under the cursed mask of religion, lodged a great

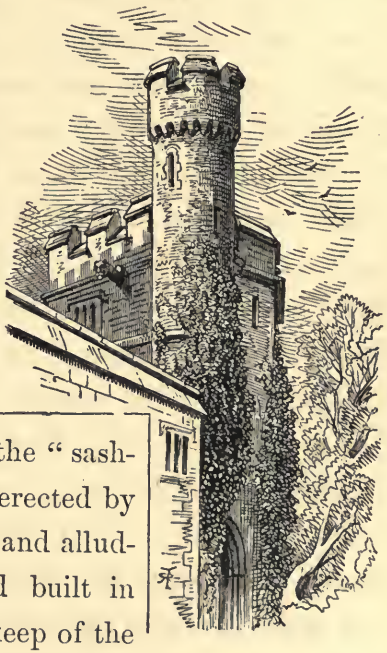
quantity of gunpowder under the parliament-house, and waited to fire it and blow up their king and country in a moment." It was in consequence, doubtless, of his service to the nation in discovering the Gunpowder Plot that William, Lord Monteagle, and his family were exempted from the operation of the severe laws against Roman Catholic recusants. In 1617 King James, while on his journey from Edinburgh to London, honoured his preserver by visiting him at his castle of Hornby. Five years afterwards, William, Lord Monteagle and Morley, died, and was succeeded in his estates by his son Henry. On the breaking out of the Civil War, Henry, Lord Monteagle and Morley, allied himself with the Royalists, and Hornby Castle was on several occasions the scene of tumult and conflict. In 1625 a search for arms was made at the castle; and in 1643 Colonel Ashton and a force of Roundheads attacked and took the castle, and shortly afterwards the Commons passed an order for its being dismantled. The order was not carried out, however; and a few months later Roger Kirkby and Rigby of

Burgh got a number of Furness and Cartmel men together and attempted to rescue both Hornby Castle and the neighbouring castle of Thurland. Colonel Alexander Rigby heard of their intention, went out to meet them, and drove them back to the verge of the sea beyond Lancaster.

On the establishment of the Commonwealth, the estates of Henry, Lord Monteagle and Morley, were seized by the Parliament, and the Honour of Hornby was held on lease by one John Wildman for about a year. The attainted lord died, however, in 1655, and his son Thomas succeeded in recovering possession of his father's estates prior to the Restoration. Thomas, Lord Monteagle and Morley, after mortgaging Hornby several times, ultimately conveyed the equity of redemption, in 1663, to Robert, Earl of Cardigan, whose successor in 1713 sold the castle and its dependencies to Colonel Francis Charteris, known as "the wicked lord," who was condemned to death for a capital offence in the reign of George II. Colonel Charteris's estates were forfeited, but subsequently obtaining a pardon from the

king, the honour, manor, and estates were regranted to him. He died in 1732, and the Honour descended to his daughter Janet, wife of the Earl of Wemyss. Lord Wemyss resided at Hornby for some considerable time; and his son, Lord Elcho, slept at the castle on his march southward with the rebel army in 1745. This circumstance was regarded with great disfavour by the Earl's neighbours; and both he and his son Francis, who succeeded him in 1756, were frequently subjected to annoyance for having favoured the rebels. For some time the castle was left untenanted; but in 1789 the then Earl Wemyss and his son, Lord Elcho, sold the castle, honour, and dependencies to Mr. John Marsden of Wennington Hall. Mr. Marsden put the castle into complete repair, and took up his abode there in 1794. On Mr. Marsden's death childless, in 1826, Hornby Castle became once more the subject of litigation, and for ten years the lawyers pleaded and counter-pleaded respecting it, urging suit and appeal with great pertinacity. This *cause célèbre* was instituted, in the first instance, by Rear-Admiral Tatham against Mr.

George Wright, who had been Mr. Marsden's agent up to the time of his death, and in whose favour partially he had made a will. After a long and costly litigation, lasting from 1826 to 1836, Admiral Tatham succeeded in establishing his claim as the heir-at-law of Mr. Marsden, whose nephew he was, and he took possession of Hornby amidst great rejoicings. In 1840 Admiral Tatham transferred the estate to Mr. Pudsey Dawson, who took down the "sash-windowed mansion" erected by the Charteris family, and alluded to by Gray, and built in front of the ancient keep of the Monteagles the main portion of the present hall. Mr. Dawson owned the Hornby demesnes down to the year 1860, when Mr. John Foster purchased the property, and continued to reside there up to within a short period of his death.



One of the last "great occasions" for Hornby and its castle was in January, 1877, when, instead of the denizens of the pastoral valley of the Lune being summoned together to accompany the Lord of Hornby to battle, as "in the brave days of old," they attended at the castle, of their own promptings, to tender to Mr. Foster their good wishes and congratulations on his entering upon his eightieth year. The residents on the estate had enjoyed nearly twenty years of quiet and repose under the kindly guardianship of this captain of industry, who, when he had fought his good fight amongst the toilers and leaders in factory and mart, and won his reward of fortune, had settled down to end his days amongst the rural delights and historic associations of this ancient lordship. The bells in the fine old church-tower were set ringing, and on every side were the most profuse signs of rejoicing. There was something deeply touching in the manner in which the eloquently-worded address of the tenants was that day handed to the venerable landlord, and in the simple earnestness and gratitude of Mr. Foster's reply; and in the

evening a banquet on a magnificent scale was given by the tenants, the various members of the Foster family being invited. The day altogether was one that will long be held in remembrance.

Shortly before Mr. John Foster's death, in the early part of last year, Mr. William Foster came into possession of the Hornby estates; and under his direction the castle has become a more imposing figure in the landscape than at any former period. When time has sufficiently subdued the newness of aspect of the additional wings and enlargements which he has made, the building and its surroundings will be well worthy of being put upon canvas by another Turner.

There still remains something to be said regarding the village itself and its notable features. The principal hostel, the Castle Inn, is of that homely type which Dickens so much admired, and is probably the place visited by Drunken Barnaby when he rested at "Horneby, seat renowned," as he calls it, and penned his amusing doggerel thereanent. The church, however, is the most striking feature; and its tower, so frequently alluded to, is of such singular beauty as to cause

one to regret that the rest of the edifice was not completed on the same scale. The church is dedicated to St. Margaret, and was intended "as the domestic chapel of the lords of Hornby, as

HORNBY CHURCH.

well as to become the parochial chapel for the townships of Hornby, Farleton, Roeburndale, and Wray with Botton.* Of late years some

* Baines's *History of Lancashire.*

slight improvements have been made in the appearance of the church, but, with its flat roof and unrelieved spaces, it yet remains internally a somewhat ungainly-looking edifice. Three handsome stained-glass windows have been placed in the chancel, one to the memory of Lord Montcagle, one in commemoration of Mr. John Marsden, and a third contains a figure in representation of St. Margaret. There is also a tablet to the memory of Dr. Lingard, the historian, in the chancel, which memorial was erected by his "friends and associates," Mr. Pudsey Dawson, Mr. John Murray, and Mr. Coulston.

This is perhaps the only instance that could be cited of a Roman Catholic dignitary having a monument erected to him in modern times in a Protestant church.

Dr. Lingard lived in a pleasantly-situated house nearly opposite the church. The house stands back a little way from the road, and has a small garden in front, with protecting wall and iron railings coming up to the roadside. Adjoining the house is a little chapel, where for forty years —from 1811 to 1851—the doctor was accustomed to perform his humble ministrations. There is

a large garden behind the house and chapel; and there, amongst sweet-smelling flowers and overhanging trees, the good priest was wont to sit or walk, book in hand, pursuing his studies in healthful seclusion. Mr. Murray of Hornby Hall, and other venerable residents of the village, still preserve pleasant recollections of the historian, for whom the greatest possible respect was always felt by those amongst whom he lived. The Roman Catholic mission at Hornby was founded by Anne, daughter of Thomas Benison of Hornby, and wife of Mr. John Fenwick of Borrow, and it was to this place of retirement that Dr. Lingard came from Ushaw in September, 1811, having declined to take the presidency of the college at Maynooth, which post he had been urged to accept by Bishop Moylan. From that time forward he had ample leisure to follow the bent of his genius; and it was in that quiet, unpretentious house at Hornby that he wrote, year by year, with steady industry, but quietly and calmly, his *History of England*, a work which has long been regarded as one of the most able histories that we possess.

It is related of Dr. Lingard, by one who well

remembers him, that he was an early riser, being downstairs never later than eight o'clock. He would then take a walk in his garden, after which he went in to breakfast, and when the meal was over replied to the letters which the morning's post might have brought him. From that time to noon it was his practice to employ himself in literary work, and from noon until about three o'clock he would walk out. He was of a genial, sociable nature, and both received and paid many daily visits. One of his most intimate friends was the vicar of Hornby, Mr. Fogg; indeed, all the English Church clergy in the district were on intimate terms with him, and none of the country gentlemen who lived near, from the occupant of the castle downwards, ever thought a dinner-party complete without the doctor.

Many distinguished personages made their way to Hornby to visit Dr. Lingard. Brougham, Scarlett, Pollock, and other leading members of the Northern Circuit were in the habit of driving over from Lancaster to spend a vacant day with the historian, whenever assize business brought them to John of Gaunt's ancient city. Francis Jeffrey, so well

known as the original editor of the *Edinburgh Review*, came now and then also. One time Samuel Lover visited him and painted the doctor's portrait. During his stay Lover sang his song, "The Angel's Whisper," to the historian, who was deeply moved. Dr. Lingard was consulted by everybody in Hornby, Catholic or Protestant, when in any difficulty, and there was little passed in the neighbourhood without his being aware of it. He was particularly fond of children, and often had a number playing around him even when engaged in writing his History. Every Christmas Day he gave a dinner to a large party of children. Their simple prattle delighted him beyond measure, and they used to follow him about and look up to him as to a grandfather. He had a dog, which he called Etna, that was a great household favourite and companion of his walks. One day he and Etna sat down on the river-bank, and on the other side of the stream the doctor saw a farmer hard at work in the field, his hat lying on the ground a few yards away. The doctor, who dearly loved a practical joke,

signalled Etna to fetch the farmer's hat; and the dog at once proceeded stealthily across the river, and soon returned with the hat in its mouth. This done, the doctor placed the hat on the end of his stick and hoisted it up, until it caught the gaze of the farmer, who was much astonished to find that his head-covering had been secretly drafted away across the stream. Etna was a very sagacious animal, and lived on perfectly amicable terms with another of Dr. Lingard's household pets, an exceedingly fine and powerful cat. The doctor's chief amusement was whist, which he played almost every evening with his friend Mr. Murray and others. He was a capital player, and in defeat or victory his good-nature always kept him at the same genial level.

Dr. Lingard, in his forty years' residence at Hornby, could not help making a marked impression upon the social life and cultivated thought of the district of Lonsdale. During the earlier portion of his time there he employed himself largely in writing for the reviews and magazines, as well as in the

composition of his history, and was looked up to whenever a literary controversy was raging for an expression of opinion, which he was generally free enough in giving vent to. He was one of the first promoters of the *Lancaster Guardian*, a paper which still exists and thrives, and occasionally he would figure in its columns as a correspondent.

Cardinal Wiseman was a pupil of Dr. Lingard's, and until the doctor's death the two kept up an affectionate correspondence. Lingard himself objected to having titles and honours conferred upon him. He had a cardinal's hat offered to him, but declined it. At one time the Duke of Norfolk, Lord Holland, and other eminent personages tried to induce the doctor to make application for a pension from the Civil List; but the historian's high-mindedness would not permit him to do the necessary canvassing. This was at a time when Dr. Lingard had suffered severe pecuniary loss from the suspension of a Lancaster bank. Subsequently, however, a donation of 300*l.* was made from the Queen's privy purse, and on receiving it he purchased a

carriage; and he afterwards used to say to his friends that the Queen had given him his carriage.

His History, however, brought him a considerable sum year after year, and he died worth 25,000*l.*, which he left to his old college at Ushaw. Dr. Lingard will be a memory for all time to come for the village of Hornby; and his house, chapel, and garden, which still remain as he left them, constitute a literary shrine at which Protestant and Catholic may worship with equal reverence. The Rev. Father Fisher, who is not less esteemed than his predecessor, for piety and goodness of heart, now holds the Roman Catholic living at Hornby, and resides in the house formerly occupied by the historian.

Before concluding our account of Hornby it will be necessary to mention one or two antiquarian features of interest which remain as reminders of a distinguished past. Up to the period of the dissolution of monastic establishments in England, Hornby had a priory, which was a cell of the Abbey of Croxton, in Leicestershire, and had been

endowed by the liberality of Roger de Montbegon, who, as the *Testa de Nevill* records, gave one hundred acres of land in alms to the canons of Hornby. After the dissolution, however, the site and possessions of the priory were granted to Lord Monteagle and Henry Croft, and little by little the ruins disappeared, until now there is nothing left to denote where the priory stood. The site occupied by this monastic building was a commanding situation overlooking the Lune, a short distance above its junction with the Wenning. About half a mile higher up are the remains of a fortification which once guarded the pass of the Lune. A tumulus or barrow was connected with the fortification. On another part of the Hornby estate, Camp Field, are the remains of a Roman encampment in perfect outline.

Indeed, the whole of the extensive possessions now appurtenant to Hornby Castle present features or associations of abiding interest. The castle itself—which, by the way, must not be confounded with another Hornby Castle in Yorkshire, owned by the Duke of

Leeds—has a history that corresponds to all the fluctuations of English social, political, and religious life. In Norman, Plantagenet, and Tudor times, when the dependencies of Hornby were little less than eighty miles in circumference; when herds of wild-deer ranged its forests commons, and parks; and when

> "crested chiefs and tissued dames
> Assembled at the clarion's call
> In this proud castle's high-arched hall."

—the aristocracy of the time was nobly represented by the lords who there held feudal sway. But, in these later times, there has arisen a new aristocracy, the aristocracy of commerce, and that is the dignity which is to-day represented by the possessor of this ancient lordship.

THE FORTUNES OF THE GLADSTONE FAMILY.

THE FORTUNES OF THE GLADSTONE FAMILY.

THE name of Gladstone, now so palpably and prëeminently written in our political annals, was half a century ago known only as a name of potency and influence in the world of commerce. In 1832, when Mr. W. E. Gladstone, not then twenty-three years of age, presented himself as a parliamentary candidate before the electors of Newark, people asked wonderingly, "Who is this Mr. Gladstone?" At Newark they had not even the advantage of knowing that the name of Gladstone stood high on the Liverpool 'Change; and when a journalist of the day explained that the youthful candidate was the son of a great Liverpool merchant, "the friend of Canning," the voters of this comfortable pocket borough of the Duke of Newcastle's were no doubt grateful for the information. Since that time, the name

has become familiar in the mouths of men; and a long and remarkable political career has added to it a lustre and significance which could never have been dreamed of by the shrewd and plodding man of business who, in the latter part of the eighteenth century, settled at Liverpool, and there embarked in those commercial undertakings by which he ultimately made his fortune. It was the circumstance of John Gladstone having become opulent by business which made it possible for his son to enter upon that course of study and cultivation, and placed him upon that social plane, which enabled him, by the exercise of his great natural gifts, to achieve the highest position which an Englishman can attain. Mr. Gladstone owes his start in life to business; and it is not at all improbable that, had his father been less successful, the man who was destined to employ his genius and energy in managing the affairs of the nation might have found himself altogether absorbed in commercial pursuits, with no higher ambition than the honourable one of becoming a merchant prince. Mr. Gladstone has never attempted to sever the link between his original trade-surroundings and his subsequent political

life, and, while devoting himself with all the ardour of his being to the latter, has always been ready to acknowledge his obligations to the former. "I know not," said Mr. Gladstone at Liverpool in 1872, "why commerce in England should not have its old families, rejoicing to be connected with commerce from generation to generation. It has been so in other countries; I trust it will be so in this country. I think it is a subject of sorrow, and almost of scandal, when those families who have either acquired or recovered station and wealth through commerce turn their backs upon it, and seem to be ashamed of it. It certainly is not so with my brother or with me. His sons are treading in his steps, and one of my sons, I rejoice to say, is treading in the steps of my father and my brother."

It is not too much to say that the men of whom England has the greatest cause to be proud—the men who have done most to elevate her, morally, materially, and politically—have, in the majority of instances, risen from the ranks of trade and commerce; and in Mr. Gladstone we have not only a representative of the highest type of

English statesman, but a representative of those traditions and rewards which a prosperous and active business community like ours has always been able to look up to and to cherish. Few families, however lofty their lineage, however aristocratic their present *entourage*, but in the backward glance down the vistas of the past can descry some high commercial landmark by which their ancestors found their way to fortune and to title. In some cases the landmark lies more remotely in the retrospect than in others, that is all; but it often happens that the nearer the connection between the commercial existence and the non-commercial existence, the greater the strength and individuality there is in the person inheriting so favourable a position. In this article the intention is to show how the Gladstones made their way from comparatively humble business beginnings to wealth, rank, and fame; and how in natural sequence the commercial life gradually merged into the political, the one strengthening the other, until to-day the name of Gladstone is regarded almost solely in its political import.

The Gladstones are a Scotch family, and can be traced back to the Gladstones of Biggar in

Lanarkshire, who flourished early in the sixteenth century. There was a William Gladstanes, who carried on the business of a maltster at Biggar down to the year 1728, when he died, leaving three sons and a daughter. His son John, born in 1693 or 1694, succeeded to his business, and extended it considerably. John died in 1756. "This John Gladstanes," says Mr. G. Barnett Smith, "had a large family, consisting of five sons and six daughters. The third son, John, took the patrimony of Mid Toftcombs, and marrying, received with his wife, Christian Taverner, a dowry amounting to seven thousand merks—a not inconsiderable sum at that period. The fourth son of this marriage was Thomas Gladstone—grandfather of the statesman—who was born at Mid Toftcombs on June 3rd, 1732, and lived until the year of William Ewart Gladstone's birth, dying at the ripe age of seventy-seven. Thomas Gladstone, having early left the parental roof, became a corn-merchant in Leith, and married Helen, the daughter of Walter Neilson of Springfield. Their union was very prolific, and of sixteen children born to them, no fewer than twelve grew up to maturity. Thomas

Gladstone's aptitude for business was so great, and he was so enterprising, that, notwithstanding the numerous claims upon him, he was able to make some provision for all his sons in the adoption of their various trades or callings."

John Gladstone (Mr. W. E. Gladstone's father) was Thomas Gladstone's eldest son, and was born at Leith in 1763. After receiving a fair education, he joined his father in business, and showed so much talent and activity that he was soon intrusted with the execution of important commissions. Thomas Gladstone was a large importer of grain, and on a certain occasion, having a cargo of grain arriving in Liverpool, he sent his son John to receive and endeavour to effect a sale of it. John Gladstone succeeded in doing this to his father's entire satisfaction, and in the negotiations connected therewith was brought into contact with the principal partner in the firm of Corrie & Co., corn merchants. Mr. Corrie was so favourably impressed with young Gladstone's business aptitude and intelligence, that he wrote to the father and begged to be allowed to retain his son as assistant in the house of Corrie & Co. John Gladstone himself, impressed by the magnitude and importance of Liverpool as a

commercial centre, added his own entreaties to those of Mr. Corrie; and his father, who had other sons growing up capable of rendering him aid in his own business at Leith, consented to the proposal. It thus came about that, in the year 1784, John Gladstone settled himself down to that commercial career which, as the years went on, raised him to fortune and eminence.

Liverpool was at this period doing a vast and rapidly increasing trade, and, to a young man of tact and energy like John Gladstone, it afforded the best possible field for enterprise and speculation. The port on the Mersey had now entered upon the third stage of its development. During the early years of the eighteenth century Liverpool had enriched itself to a mighty extent by the importation of tobacco. In the ten years from 1700 to 1709 not less than 12,880 tons of American weed were annually imported into Great Britain, 7,857 tons being re-shipped to other countries, leaving 5,023 tons for home consumption. Liverpool was chiefly responsible for this importation of tobacco, half the shipping and more than half the wealth of the port being given up to the traffic. From 1700 to 1752 the tobacco

trade was the great source of Liverpool's prosperity, and in that period the population increased from 5,715 to 18,500. The second stage of Liverpool's commercial development dated from about the middle of the eighteenth century, down to the year 1807, during which time it achieved the questionable eminence of being more largely engaged in the slave trade than any other place in the world. This inhuman traffic was at its height when John Gladstone entered the house of Corrie and Co., and in the agitation which subsequently ensued for its abolition he must have been deeply concerned. The first slave-ship—a small vessel of thirty tons—was sent from Liverpool in 1709; and so remunerative did that venture prove, that by 1753 there were no fewer than eighty-eight Liverpool ships engaged in the slave trade. From 1795 to 1804, the Liverpool merchants were the means of shipping 323,770 slaves from Africa to America and the West Indies; and so it came about that nearly everyone in the town was directly or indirectly engaged in the slave traffic. John Gladstone himself, as an owner of slaves, became in a way connected with this unhappy branch of commerce, and, like many more merchants of

reputed probity and honesty, was able to satisfy his conscience by arguing it to be a necessity ; and there is no doubt that in the subsequent agitation for the abolition of the slave trade he was not altogether in sympathy with Clarkson, Roscoe, Wilberforce and the statesman whom he most delighted to honour—Canning. It was during the later and more legitimate period of Liverpool's trading, however, that John Gladstone obtained his greatest measure of success. The slave trade was put an end to in 1804 ; and thenceforward it was by following more honourable courses that Liverpool achieved the prosperity which ultimately made it the first shipping port in the world. Fresh channels of enterprise opened up as others closed; and John Gladstone, as we shall see, played an important part in the advancement of Liverpool in the early years of the present century.

Corrie & Co. showed their appreciation of the services of the young Scotsman by making him a partner after a time ; and the firm of Corrie, Gladstone & Bradshaw soon extended its operations, and became one of the most active and prosperous firms in the trade. Mr. Smith, in his *Life of W. E. Gladstone*, relates an anecdote in connection with

John Gladstone's business sagacity at this period. "The utter failure of the European corn crops," says Mr. Smith, "was regarded as an excellent opportunity for doing a great stroke of business by Mr. Corrie, who sent Mr. Gladstone to the United States to buy grain. But America, too, had suffered in her crops, and no corn was to be had. While in a condition of great perplexity, Mr. Gladstone received advices from Liverpool to the effect that twenty-four vessels had been engaged to convey to Europe the grain he was despatched to purchase, but which he had not been successful in procuring. The disastrous news soon became known that there were no cargoes of grain, and that the vessels, instead of being loaded with a rich freight must return to Liverpool in ballast only. The prospect was ruinous, and the stability of the house of Corrie & Co. was considered irretrievably shattered. But Liverpool merchants had reckoned without their host. Now was the time for John Gladstone to demonstrate his business capacity and enterprise, by which he was able to save the fortunes of the firm. While many would have been helplessly casting about for means of recovery, young Gladstone was up and doing. The ships

must not return empty. He made a thorough examination of the American markets, ascertained what stocks there were which would be likely to prove acceptable in Liverpool, and by dint of sleepless energy and activity, he managed to stock the holds of all the vessels. The result was that the house was saved at a very trifling loss."

This transaction revealed fresh possibilities of commercial success to John Gladstone, and from that time the firm's speculations were by no means confined to the importing and selling of grain. They soon launched into business as general merchants and importers, and were fortunate enough to be appointed Government agents at Liverpool. For sixteen years the partnership between Messrs. Corrie, Gladstone & Bradshaw continued unbroken; but at the end of that time a dissolution took place, by which Mr. John Gladstone was left sole proprietor of the concern. Mr. Gladstone was still a comparatively young man, and full of energy and business capacity; so, instead of confining his operations within narrower limits now that he was left to himself, he felt more free than ever to extend his undertakings. He first took his

brother Robert into partnership; and subsequently other brothers came and settled in Liverpool, until in the end all the seven sons of Thomas Gladstone were drafted away from Leith to the rising Lancashire seaport. The firm of Gladstone & Co. became very extensively engaged in the West India trade, Mr. John Gladstone himself making large purchases of estates in Demerara and elsewhere in the Indies. The sugar and other produce which he sold on the Liverpool Exchange were grown on his own plantations and imported in his own ships, and he rapidly amassed a fortune in this branch of commerce. He was, of course, a large slave-owner; and the first speech that Mr. W. E. Gladstone made in the House of Commons was in defence of his father, whose estates in the West Indies had been expressly referred to in the Emancipation debate by Lord Howick, the imputation being that the slaves on the plantations of Mr. Gladstone and other West Indian proprietors were inhumanly treated. There is every reason to believe, however, from evidence which was adduced at that time, that the slaves on Mr. Gladstone's estates were well kept and

treated with every kindness and consideration; indeed, so well were Mr. Gladstone's West Indian estates ordered and superintended, that slavery as it existed on his plantations, did not seem the horrible thing that the abolitionists made it out to be. Sudden emancipation, the Gladstones argued, would utterly demoralise the negroes, severing that protecting link which was necessary to keep them together; first educate them to thrifty and industrious habits, they said, and then let them be emancipated by all means. The Gladstone theory of emancipation was conscientiously held by a large number of people at that time, and in advocating such theory they considered themselves in sympathy with, rather than in opposition to, the abolitionists.

John Gladstone & Co. opened up trade connections with all parts of the world. They had ships constantly plying between Liverpool and Russia, with which country they did a very large business. In course of time they also were enabled to extend their operations to India and China, their firm being the first to send out a private vessel to Calcutta after the extension of the East India and China trades,

beyond the limits of the East India Company's monopoly. All this time Mr. John Gladstone was not neglecting his interests in Liverpool; but while his trade with foreign nations increased, he contrived to make many valuable investments in land and house property, all of which proved very fortunate speculations. He thus became the possessor of property in Liverpool, Seaforth, and elsewhere, which in course of time doubled and trebled itself in value. He also purchased the advowsons of St. Andrew's Church, Renshaw Street, Liverpool, and Seaforth Church, of which the Gladstone family still remain the patrons.

The energy and ability of Mr. John Gladstone found a still further outlet in the excitement of political life. His commercial interests first forced him into the arena of politics; but once having got there, he became so imbued with party feeling that he was never able wholly to disentangle himself from political associations. The years 1806 and 1807 were years of great depression for Liverpool merchants. The decrees of Napoleon and the counter decrees of the British Government, in

regard to vessels trading with foreign ports, were most harassing to traders; and when to these were added the complications consequent upon the disputes with America, a state of commercial stagnation ensued which was most disastrous. A petition to Parliament was got up on the subject, praying for an alteration of the Orders in Council, and John Gladstone and Co. were amongst the most influential signatories on that occasion. It was not until 1812, however, that the orders were withdrawn, and by that time England was at war with the United States. In this year, on the retirement of William Roscoe from the representation of Liverpool, Mr. John Gladstone brought forward Mr. Canning's name, and through his interest the celebrated Tory statesman was adopted as a candidate. The other candidates were Henry Brougham, General Gascoyne, and Mr. Creevey, and between Canning and Brougham Mr. Gladstone strove hard to effect an alliance. In this he was unsuccessful, there being but little sympathy between the future Tory Premier and the future Whig Lord Chancellor, although years

afterwards, during the brief period that Canning held the reins of Government (in 1827), Brougham gave his old opponent his support. Failing in his efforts to get Canning and Brougham to run together, Mr. Gladstone took up the local Tory candidate, General Gascoyne, in conjunction with Canning (the expenses of whose election he defrayed out of his own pocket); and the result was that Canning and Gascoyne were returned by a large majority. Brougham was now excluded from Parliament for four years; and when in 1816 he was returned for Winchilsea, he made his appearance in the House as the declared enemy of Canning. One of the most memorable scenes that ever occurred in the House took place between Brougham and Canning in this year. In the debate on Catholic Emancipation, Brougham charged Canning with having been "guilty of the most monstrous truckling for office that the whole history of political tergiversation could present;" and Canning, losing all self-control, started to his feet, and cried, "It is false!" Still, as we have pointed out, these two eminent statesmen subsequently

reconciled their differences and coöperated in political action.

Great as was the interest taken in Liverpool affairs by Mr. John Gladstone, he always refused to allow himself to be elected a member of the municipal corporation, although there is no doubt he would have been an acceptable mayor, and would have discharged the duties of the office with distinction. His sympathy was not much enlisted in municipal matters, yet in every movement that had for its object the direct advancement of Liverpool's prosperity he was an active participator. It was through his exertions that a clause was introduced into the Steamboat Act, requiring every vessel to carry a number of boats proportionate to the number of passengers, a provision which has been the means of saving thousands of lives. It is recorded also that John Gladstone was one of the principal speakers at a meeting held in the Liverpool Town Hall, on February 14th, 1824, for the purpose of considering the best means of assisting the Greeks in their struggle for independence. On many public occasions Mr.

Gladstone came forward as a speaker, and, without being possessed of particular eloquence, he had a manly straightforward way of expressing his sentiments, which always caused him to be listened to with attention and respect. Mr. Gladstone remained the faithful friend of Canning to the last; and when in 1822 that statesman took his farewell of Liverpool, Mr. Gladstone presided at the dinner given in his honour, and it was at Mr. Gladstone's house that an address was formally presented to the retiring member. When Canning, five years later, succeeded Lord Liverpool as Prime Minister, Mr. Gladstone moved an address of congratulation to the King. Canning's name was perpetuated in Liverpool in many ways, and in a great measure owing to the exertions of Mr. Gladstone. The Liverpool Canning Club was an outcome of this hero-worship; so were the Canning Docks, and many other public erections. How greatly Mr. Gladstone's attitude on important questions, and his untiring efforts for the promotion of the prosperity of Liverpool, were appreciated, is sufficiently

evidenced by the fact that, on October 18th, 1824, his "fellow-townsmen and friends" presented him with a service of plate, "to mark their high sense of his successful exertions for the promotion of trade and commerce, and in acknowledgment of his most important services rendered to the town of Liverpool."

By this time Mr. John Gladstone, rich in worldly possessions, owning the friendship of a Minister of State, and standing high in the esteem of the world of commerce and his own political party, was prompted to court parliamentary honours, and, mainly through the influence of the Marlborough family, obtained a seat in the House of Commons as the representative of Woodstock. He afterwards sat for Lancaster, and was in the House altogether about nine years, remaining a member long enough to sit on the same benches as his son. It must have been with peculiar feelings that Mr. John Gladstone listened to his son's first speech, to which we have already alluded, full as it was of personal references. It was insinuated that the head of the house of Glad-

stone & Co. had made his enormous wealth by slave-driving, and many stories were concocted of alleged inhumanities practised on their West Indian plantations. When Mr. W. E. Gladstone was put in nomination for Newark he was publicly asked what he thought of the passage in Exodus xxi. 16: "He that stealeth a man and selleth him, or if he be found in his hand, he shall surely be put to death;" and whether his father was not a dealer in human flesh. He had also been asked to expound his views upon the subject of negro slavery generally. One of the public journals had told the people that Mr. Gladstone was "the son of Gladstone of Liverpool, a person who had amassed a large fortune by West India dealings. In other words, a great part of his gold has sprung from the blood of black slaves." All this, as one can well imagine, was calculated to place the Gladstones in bad odour at a time when the country was agitated with the question of the emancipation of slaves in our colonies; but the Gladstones, father and son, valiantly took their stand side by side as opponents of immediate emancipation. The son had told the

electors of Newark that he desired the emancipation of slaves upon such terms as would preserve them and the colonies from destruction; he had told them that he earnestly trusted, without risk of blood, without violation of property, with unimpaired benefit to the negro, and with the utmost speed which prudence would admit, they would arrive at that exceedingly desirable consummation, the utter extinction of slavery; and he now repeated this, and more, to the House of Commons, when provoked thereto by the pointed allusions of Lord Howick, and moved by strong feelings of filial duty. Lord Howick had referred—we quote the words of Mr. Barnett Smith—to an estate in Demerara owned by Mr. Gladstone's father, "for the purpose of showing that a great destruction of human life had taken place in the West Indies, owing to the manner in which the slaves were worked. It was in reply to this accusation that Mr. Gladstone delivered his maiden speech on May 17th, 1883, the occasion being the presentation of a petition from Portarlington for the abolition of slavery. He challenged the noble lord's statement respecting the decrease of seventy-one

slaves upon the estate of Vreeden Hoop, which had been attributed to the increased cultivation of sugar. The real cause of the decrease lay in the very large proportion of Africans upon the estate. When it came into his father's possession, it was so weak, owing to the great number of Africans upon it, that he was obliged to add two hundred people to the gang. It was notorious that Africans were imported into Demerara and Trinidad up to a later period than into any other colony; and he should, when the proper time arrived, be able to prove that the decrease on Vreeden Hoop was among the old Africans, and that there was an increase going on in the Creole population, which would be a sufficient answer to the noble lord. The quantity of sugar produced was small in proportion to that produced on many other estates. The cultivation of cotton in Demerara had been abandoned, and that of coffee much diminished, and the people employed in these sources of production had been transferred to the cultivation of sugar. Demerara, too, was peculiarly circumstanced, and the labour of the same number of negroes, distributed over the year,

would produce in that colony a given quantity of sugar, with less injury to the people, than negroes could produce in other colonies, working only at the stated periods of crop. He was ready to admit that this cultivation was of a more severe character than others; and he would ask, were there not certain employments in this and other countries more destructive to life than others? He would only instance those of painting and working in lead-mines, both of which were well known to have that tendency. The noble lord attempted to impugn the character of the gentleman acting as manager of his father's estates; and in making this selection he had certainly been most unfortunate, for there was not an individual in the colony more proverbial for humanity and the kind treatment of his slaves than Mr. Maclean. Mr. Gladstone, in concluding this warm defence of his relative, said he held in his hand two letters from the agent, in which that gentleman spoke in the kindest terms of the people under his charge, described their state of happiness, content, and healthiness—their good conduct, and the infrequency of severe punishment—and

recommended certain additional comforts, which he said the slaves well deserved."

The picture that Mr. W. E. Gladstone drew in this first parliamentary speech is valuable for the light it throws upon the condition of things on his father's West Indian estates at this period. On several subsequent occasions Mr. Gladstone's voice was heard in the House in defence of the West Indian planters; his great contention was that if the negroes were not prepared by moral instruction to enjoy their freedom in a rational and healthful manner, liberty would prove a curse, instead of a blessing, to them. It was in vain, however, to attempt to stem the tide of emancipation any longer; both Parliament and the country had determined that colonial slavery should cease to exist; and accordingly the measure passed, and Mr. John Gladstone would be one of the recipients of the 20,000,000*l.* compensation which by the Act was voted to the slave-owners.

Mr. John Gladstone was chairman of the West India Association during the greater period of the Emancipation agitation, and advocated the cause of the planters with much courage. He was the

author of a pamphlet "On the Present State of Slavery in the British West Indies and in the United States of America; and on the Importation of Sugar from the British Settlements in India," also of a subsequent pamphlet containing "A Statement of Facts connected with the Present State of Slavery in the British Sugar and Coffee Colonies and in the United States of America; together with a View of the Situation of the Lower Classes in the United Kingdom: in a Letter addressed to Sir Robert Peel," published in 1830. He was greatly respected by the Tory party generally, and, after the death of Canning, contracted a friendship with Sir Robert Peel. On commercial matters he was frequently consulted by the Governments of the day, and as a member of committees dealing with trade questions his assistance was invaluable. Although a fluent and able speaker at public meetings, he did not aspire to take rank amongst parliamentary speakers; but was content to serve his party by his consistent and unswerving vote. In 1845 Sir Robert Peel conferred a baronetcy upon him, an honour which he had well deserved, both for his political fidelity and as a reward for his great public services

as one of the chief commercial men of his time.

Sir John Gladstone was twice married. By his first marriage there was no issue; but by his second wife, Ann Robertson, daughter of Mr. Andrew Robertson, of Stornoway, he had four sons and two daughters—the present Sir Thomas Gladstone, Bart., of Fasque; William Ewart Gladstone, the distinguished statesman; John Neilson Gladstone, who was a captain in the army and M.P. for Portarlington, and died in 1863; Robertson Gladstone, the only son who evinced a desire for commercial life, and succeeded to his father's business; Ann McKenzie Gladstone and Helen Jane Gladstone, both of whom are now dead. Sir John Gladstone lived to the venerable age of eighty-eight, dying in 1851, full of years and honours. He lived to see his son achieve a prominent position as a statesman, saw him fill some of the highest offices of State, and, what would probably be more wonderful than all to the aged baronet, witnessed his gradual but decided breaking away from the principles of his youth and early manhood—the principles which he had held so tenaciously at the beginning of his

parliamentary career, and by which he had first risen to notice.

Sir Thomas Gladstone, Bart.

Sir John Gladstone's eldest son, Thomas, was born at Liverpool on July 25th, 1804. From his boyhood he was in a position, like his more distinguished brother, to hold himself aloof from the cares and responsibilities attaching to a business life. He may be said, indeed, to have been born to the purple; for although in his youth he must have heard much of trade fluctuations, and the going-out and coming-in of ships in which his father's fortune was more or less embarked, he had at his command from the first all the advantage which money could give. He was educated at Eton, and subsequently went to Christ Church, Oxford, where he took his B. A. degree in 1827, and his M. A. degree in 1830. At Oxford, Thomas Gladstone naturally had for associates many men who afterwards achieved celebrity, and his intelligence and force of character caused him to be a general favourite amongst them. Nursed in Tory principles, and

sharing all his father's admiration for Canning, he held unswervingly to the Tory faith through all political mutations; and while the lines of party have in these later times drawn closer together, he has moved but little from the original point of demarcation by which he took his stand in 1827. Thus it has happened that while Mr. W. E. Gladstone has been advocating the Liberal theories which he has seen fit to adopt in his more mature years, Thomas Gladstone has been conspicuous for the warmth with which he has denounced such theories. Thomas Gladstone had been a member of the House of Commons two years when his brother, as the nominee of the Duke of Newcastle, obtained a seat as the Conservative representative of the electors of Newark. Thomas Gladstone was returned for the now decayed borough of Queenborough in Kent, which, with a parish comprising not more than about five hundred acres, and a population of considerably under a thousand, was privileged to send two members to Parliament until the Reform Bill put an end to such an anomalous condition of things. He was one of the last members that Queenborough returned to the House of Com-

mons, having been elected in 1830. In 1832 he was returned for the Irish constituency of Portarlington, and sat for that place until 1835, when he again transferred his services to an English borough, this time being returned for the important town of Leicester which he represented for two years. From 1837 to 1842 he was without a seat in the House, but in the last-named year was fortunate enough to get returned for Ipswich. This was the last constituency for which he sat; and from the time of his succeeding to the baronetcy in 1851 he has contented himself with living the life of a country gentleman, attending to his extensive estates, and fulfilling such public duties as have naturally fallen to him in his position of landed proprietor. In 1853 the degree of D.C.L. was conferred upon him. He is Lord-Lieutenant of Kincardineshire, and was for a time Lieutenant of the Kincardine Rifles. He married Miss Louisa Fellowes, daughter of Mr. Robert Fellowes of Shottisham Park, Norfolk, in 1835, by whom he has a son—John Robert, born in 1852, and now a lieutenant in the Coldstream Guards—and three daughters. The estate which he inherited from

his father at Fasque, near Laurencekirk, Kincardineshire, is his principal seat; in addition to which he has another Scottish seat, Glendye Lodge, Banchory. Sir Thomas Gladstone takes a vigorous interest in public affairs, and is much respected by his tenants and neighbours.

The Right Hon. W. E. Gladstone.

When William Ewart Gladstone first saw the light in Rodney Street, Liverpool, on December 29th, 1809, a deep shadow rested upon the commercial atmosphere, and Liverpool merchants were suffering severely from the restrictions which war had placed upon their intercourse by sea with other nations. Had Liverpool continued in the decline which had then strongly set in, there is no doubt the fortunes of Mr. John Gladstone would have been seriously impaired, and his son's career might have been very different from what it has proved to be, though it is certain he would have won distinction, no matter into what channel his talent and activity had been diverted. But, largely owing to the determined action of John Gladstone, relief was afforded

to Liverpool; and when the anxieties and dangers of war had been tided over, increased prosperity followed, and the head of the firm of John Gladstone & Co. was enabled to realise his most sanguine hopes in the training and placing in life of his sons. It was natural that young Gladstone should have imbibed a strong predilection for politics, situated as he was, his father being one of Liverpool's chief political champions, and making his house a sort of rendezvous for the leaders of his party. It was from the balcony of Mr. Gladstone's house that Canning addressed the people after having been elected for Liverpool in 1812. In almost every public movement of importance in Liverpool Mr. John Gladstone made himself prominent; and so thoroughly and earnestly did he concern himself in the political action of the time, that the home-life of the family was deeply tinctured with political thought and feeling. In his son, William Ewart, he always found a sympathetic listener, and before the boy had reached his teens, father and son were in the habit of conversing together on public matters. The boyhood of the future statesman was thus passed in the midst of asso-

ciations which were best calculated to bring about the true development of his special genius. Contact with things commercial engendered in him a taste for matters of finance, and contact with the exciting ebbs and flows of party warfare filled his young mind with political aspirations. But, notwithstanding that he gave his heart to the study of financial concerns as he grew to manhood, he is said to have been by no means a brilliant arithmetician in his more juvenile days, and on this head the late Dean Stanley once pointed an appropriate moral. "There is a small school near Liverpool," said the Dean, "at which Mr. Gladstone was brought up before he went to Eton. A few years afterwards another little boy, who also went to this school, and whose name I will not mention, called upon the old clergyman who was the head-master. The boy was now a young man, and he said to the old clergyman, 'There is one thing in which I have never in the least degree improved since I was at school—the casting up of figures.' 'Well,' replied the master, 'it is very very extraordinary that it should be so, because certainly no one could be a more incapable

arithmetician at school than you were; but I will tell you a curious thing. When Mr. Gladstone was at the school he was just as incapable at addition and subtraction as you were; now you see what he has become. He is one of the greatest of our financiers.'" Archdeacon Jones was Mr. Gladstone's first schoolmaster.

In September, 1821, Mr. Gladstone, then in his twelfth year, went to Eton, where for six years he devoted himself with more than ordinary assiduity to the work of the school, distinguishing himself chiefly by the poetic and other contributions he put forth in the *Eton Miscellany*, a magazine to which Arthur Henry Hallam, G. A. (afterwards Bishop) Selwyn, F. H. (afterwards Sir F. H.) Doyle, and others supplied articles.

On leaving Eton in 1827 he was placed under Dr. Turner, afterwards Bishop of Calcutta, with whom he continued two years; and in 1829, being then in his twenty-first year, he proceeded to Christ Church, Oxford, and in 1831 took the highest honours in the University—a double first-class. During his short but brilliant University career his Tory proclivities were undoubtedly strengthened; for the traditions of the University

were all in that direction, and the collegians with whom he was more intimately associated were for the most part both Tories and High Churchmen. In the debates of the Oxford Union, of which for a time he was president, he took a very prominent and active part. In this miniature parliament he found himself frequently engaged in eager contention with men whom he afterwards had to debate with in the House of Commons. Lord Selborne, the Duke of Newcastle, the Duke of Abercorn, Mr. Sidney Herbert, and Mr. Lowe were contemporary with Mr. Gladstone in the Oxford Union. The great question of Reform, which then was at its height, found in Mr. Gladstone a strong opponent; and the last motion that he made as a member of the society was in opposition to a motion for the immediate emancipation of our slaves in the West Indies. Read in the light of later experience, it seems almost incredible that a mind of such a comprehensive grasp as Mr. Gladstone's should have been narrowed down and fettered by party leanings as his was at this period. He himself told us, not many months, ago, that he did not learn, when at Oxford, that which he had learned

since, viz., "to set a due value on the imperishable and the inestimable principles of human liberty." Bound to the Tory party by innumerable ties, having had Tory principles instilled into his mind with all the rigidity of high moral truths, it was not surprising that he took the stand he did in political matters, and only gave way to broader views as years and experience brought him increase of light and wisdom.

A brief period of continental travel followed his University career; and returning to England in the early autumn of 1832, he found himself solicited by the Duke of Newcastle, the father of his intimate college friend, Lord Lincoln, to come forward in the Tory interest for Newark. The address which Mr. Gladstone issued to the electors on that occasion dealt mainly with the question of slavery, maintaining its abstract lawfulness, and, while objecting to immediate emancipation, as probably leading to bloodshed and internal war, advocating a gradual approach to the desired end by allowing the slaves to earn their freedom through honest and industrious habits. Serjeant Wilde and Mr. W. Farnworth

Handley were his opponents; but he went manfully through the contest, and at the close of the poll the numbers were: Gladstone 882; Handley, 793; Wilde, 719. Mr. Gladstone was thus returned to the first Reformed House of Parliament under Tory auspices, and almost from the first was regarded as a man of mark and distinction.

Mr. Gladstone's maiden speech was delivered, as we have already seen, in connection with the question of emancipation, and in defence of his father.

It was in 1833 that Southey wrote, with a touch of gloominess, of the great expectations which had been raised by "young Gladstone, the member for Newark, who is said to be the ablest person that Oxford has sent forth for many years, since Peel or Canning," and expressed a hope "that the young man might not disappoint his friends." In one sense young Gladstone did disappoint his friends: while they were clinging fondly to party traditions and rigidly keeping themselves within party boundaries, he was thinking out political problems for himself, and constantly coming upon new lights and revela-

tions which led him far beyond the limits of Toryism. In another sense—the sense understood by Southey—he more than answered the most sanguine expectations of his friends; for while yet a young man he rose to eminence as an orator, a statesman, and a man of letters. By his speeches and writings he at once attracted the notice of the political and literary leaders of the day; those of his own party hailed him as a powerful accession to their ranks, and those who numbered themselves amongst his opponents acknowledged him as a foeman worthy of their steel. Upwards of fifty years have now elapsed since Mr. Gladstone's voice was first heard within the walls of St. Stephen's; and looking back across those eventful years, and trying to realise what history will hereafter have to say of them, it is something of a marvel to find how large a space Mr. Gladstone fills in this chequered retrospect. In so many departments of public life has he been a prominent figure, and so varied and striking have been his achievements generally, that he never seems to be off the scene. Lope de Vega and his 1,500 dramas was not more wonderful than Mr. Gladstone and his thousands

of speeches; while, as a pamphleteer and controversialist, Mr. Gladstone's performances have been hardly less stupendous. We shall best arrive at some estimate of his gigantic labours, perhaps, if we adopt a system of classification which will allow of separate points of view; taking him, first, in regard to his parliamentary career; secondly, as a literary man; and, thirdly, in relation to his social and general characteristics.

We have already described the circumstances under which he made his entry upon the political stage as member for Newark, and the manner of his *début* as an orator. When the troubled question of colonial slavery had been placed beyond further debate or argument, Mr. Gladstone advanced to the consideration of a variety of more or less important matters, but more especially devoting himself to questions connected with the Church, of which he constituted himself a most zealous champion. He spoke against Lord Althorp's Bill for reducing the number of Irish bishops, and against Mr. Hume's Universities Admission Bill, which removed the obligation upon persons entering Oxford University of

subscribing to the Thirty-nine Articles; but on both occasions he found himself a member of a small minority. In the second session of his parliamentary experience (1834), on Sir Robert Peel accepting the premiership, he was made a Junior Lord of the Treasury, and the following year was promoted to the post of Under Secretary for the Colonies. In April, 1835, Sir Robert Peel's Government was overthrown, being defeated on the Irish Church question. It is not a little remarkable that Mr. Gladstone should at this time, having only been two years in Parliament and being not more than twenty-five years of age, have filled two Government offices, and made himself a name as a speaker. From 1835 to 1841 Mr. Gladstone and his party remained in opposition, and during that period the future Premier took part in all the principal debates and strengthened his reputation in many ways. When it again came to Sir Robert Peel's turn to form a Ministry, Mr. Gladstone received the appointment of Vice-President of the Board of Trade and Master of the Mint. Soon after the accession to office of the Peel Ministry, Parliament had to battle with the great Free-trade

wave that was breaking over the country, exciting the people to tumult, and forcing the Government to take action. The sliding scale of corn duties was at this juncture introduced by Sir Robert Peel, and it devolved upon Mr. Gladstone to elucidate the Ministerial proposal, and defend it against the more advanced proposals put forward by the leader of the Opposition, Lord John Russell. The Government scheme was carried, and a revised British tariff was thereupon introduced, Mr. Gladstone being chiefly responsible for the working out of the plan, and piloting it successfully past the shoals and quicksands of opposition. But the Corn-Law agitation was still kept up, gathering additional force at every stage; motion after motion continued to be put to the House of Commons, and before long it became evident that nothing short of the total repeal of the obnoxious laws would satisfy the country. Meanwhile, Mr. Gladstone had been appointed President of the Board of Trade, in succession to the Earl of Ripon, and during the two years that he held this post much of the hard practical work of legislation fell to his lot. In May, 1845, Mr. Gladstone resigned, in order that

he might have perfect freedom of action in regard to the Maynooth Improvement Bill, then before the House, and might purge himself from suspicion of being actuated by personal motives in taking upon himself to support the Bill. Such conscientious action as this increased the respect felt for him by his colleagues, and indicated very clearly that in religious matters his mind was slowly but surely broadening towards toleration and equality. In December, 1845, Sir Robert Peel pronounced in favour of the repeal of the Corn Laws; and as the proposal did not meet with the approval of some of his colleagues, he resigned. Being subsequently induced by Her Majesty to withdraw his resignation, he resumed office with a Ministry somewhat different in its composition from his previous one. Mr. Gladstone acknowledged his conversion to Free-trade principles by accepting the portfolio of Colonial Secretary in the reconstructed Cabinet. But now again was he troubled with conscientious scruples; he could not bring himself to continue to sit for Newark, under the wing of the Duke of Newcastle, who was an uncompromising Protectionist, and at the same time

advocate the adoption of Free-trade; so he resigned his membership. Although without a seat in the House during the remainder of the session, Mr. Gladstone's influence was strongly exercised in favour of Free-trade, and there is little doubt that he was greatly instrumental in getting the measure pushed forward. It has been claimed for him, indeed, that he was, in the official sphere, "the leading pioneer of the movement."

At the general election of 1847 Mr. Gladstone was returned for Oxford University, and during Lord John Russell's retention of office he proved himself an undoubted power on all the leading questions of the day, taking part in the principal debates, and evincing year by year a steady falling away from the principles of Conservatism. In 1852, on the formation of the Derby Ministry, he was urged to accept office; but he declined, being by this time so far alienated in opinion from his former colleagues that he no longer accounted himself as belonging to their party. His great rival, Mr. Disraeli, was now Chancellor of the Exchequer, and when the Budget came to be propounded, Mr. Gladstone,

in the fulness of his fiscal knowledge, attacked it as a weak and unworthy measure, and by his able criticisms succeeded in defeating the Government. On the overthrow of the Derby Cabinet, the Earl of Aberdeen formed a Coalition Ministry, in which Mr. Gladstone filled the office of Chancellor of the Exchequer. On April 18th, 1853, he presented to the House of Commons such a striking and successful budget as convinced members on both sides of the House that he was the most able Minister of finance that England had had for a long time. The speech in which he introduced this famous Budget was a masterly and lucid exposition of financial details, and made a deep impression upon the House. The care and labour he bestowed upon the preparation of his Budgets were remarkable. It is related that on one occasion, being in the London offices of Mr. Lindsay, the shipowner, engaged in making a note of some shipping returns for his Budget, Mr. Gladstone was observed by a brusque but wealthy Sunderland shipowner, who rather admired the industrious and intelligent way in which the Chancellor of the Exchequer did his

work. After regarding him for a while, and not in the least knowing who he was, the ship-owner at last addressed him: "Thou writes a bonny hand, thou dost," he said. "I am glad you think so," was the reply. "Ah, thou dost; thou maks thy figures weel; thou'rt just the chap I want." "Indeed." "Yes, indeed," said the Sunderland man; "I'm a man of few words, noo; if thou'lt come over to Sunderland I'll gie thee 120*l.* a year. Noo, then." "I'm much obliged for the offer," was the answer; "and when Mr. Lindsay returns I'll consult him on the subject." Mr. Lindsay presently came into the office, was told of the offer that had been made, and the joke was kept up for a minute or two, Mr. Lindsay at last remarking that he should be sorry to stand in the young man's way, and that the sooner they knew each other the better. "Allow me, therefore," he said, "to introduce to you the Right Hon. W. E. Gladstone, Chancellor of the Exchequer." After that explanation, the Sunderland ship-owner enjoyed the joke quite as much as Mr. Gladstone.

We now bring Mr. Gladstone's parliamentary

history down to the period of the Crimean War, when, as has been so well said, England "drifted" into a desperate and costly struggle. All Mr. Gladstone's dreams of favourable Budgets and increased commercial prosperity were now rudely dissipated, and, instead of pursuing the line of reduced taxation, he found himself suddenly compelled to increase the burdens of the country in order to meet an enormous war expenditure. During the trying period of the existence of the Aberdeen Ministry, he managed the financial affairs of the State with remarkable ability; and, as was natural, on the collapse of the Coalition Cabinet, and a reconstruction of Government by Lord Palmerston in February, 1855, Mr. Gladstone was continued in the office of Chancellor of the Exchequer. Shortly afterwards, on Mr. Roebuck pressing his demand for a Committee of Inquiry into the condition of the British army before Sebastopol, he resigned, being succeeded by Sir G. C. Lewis. In 1856 there came the Treaty of Peace, and a return to quieter times. In 1858 Lord Derby once more undertook the duty of forming a Ministry, the Palmerston Government having been defeated on

the Conspiracy to Murder Bill, introduced after the attempt made by Orsini on the life of the Emperor of the French, and brought forward, it was maintained, at the dictation of the French Government. Mr. Gladstone made one of his most powerful speeches in opposition to this measure. The same year Mr. Gladstone accepted the appointment of Lord High Commissioner Extraordinary to the Ionian Islands; and, going out to Corfu to investigate and decide upon the claims of the Ionian people to incorporation with Greece, he advised that the cession of the islands should be conceded; and ultimately, in June, 1864, this arrangement was formally carried into effect.

On the reaccession to power of Lord Palmerston in 1859, Mr. Gladstone was again installed in the post of Chancellor of the Exchequer, and for the next six years he continued to fill that office with distinction and to the satisfaction of the country. In 1860 the French Treaty of Commerce was effected, the details thereof having been arranged with remarkable ability and success by Mr. Cobden, to whom Mr. Gladstone paid a warm tribute of

respect when he came to expound the scheme to the House of Commons. Mr. Gladstone's long tenure of office on this occasion was, indeed, signalised by the passing of many fiscal measures of great utility and benefit to the country. Under his financial *régime* the excise duty on paper was abolished, the income-tax was greatly reduced, and many other imposts were either swept away or materially diminished. His Budget speeches were perhaps the most successful enunciations of financial policy which this century has known; they were always listened to with eager interest by crowded benches, and were instinct with the true vigour and fire of oratory.

At the general election of 1865 the University of Oxford rejected Mr. Gladstone; his departure from the Tory principles which he had originally been elected to support, and had at one time so eloquently supported, was now so complete, that, notwithstanding his great name as a statesman and financier, the full Tory strength of the University was exerted against him, and Mr. Gathorne Hardy was elected in his place. South Lancashire, how-

ever, succeeded in carrying him, and the right honourable gentleman sat for this constituency down to the year 1868, when defeat attended his efforts once again. Greenwich, however, had meanwhile elected him; and when he next entered the House of Commons it was as Prime Minister, possessing the support of a very substantial majority. The events of the five years of government which now ensued are well within the memory of all who take an interest in public affairs, and need not be dwelt upon in detail. Amongst the more important measures which the Gladstone Government succeeded in carrying through Parliament, it will be sufficient to enumerate the Irish Church Disestablishment Act, the Endowed Schools Bill, the Irish Land Act, the Ballot Act, the Elementary Education Act, the Bill for the Abolition of Purchase in the Army, and the University Tests Bill. It has been given to few Ministries to place upon the statute-books so numerous an array of conspicuous acts of legislation within so short a period; and however much Mr. Gladstone's opponents may be inclined to depreciate the value of these various measures,

there are few but will allow that in passing them Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues were moved by a sincere desire to further the best interests of the people, and to establish in the country the principles of justice and freedom. Such a swift succession of great measures was calculated to induce the opinion in many minds that the wheels of Government were travelling too fast, and it was presaged that the coach of State would soon be upset unless the Conservative brake were applied. When, therefore, Mr. Gladstone, in the early part of 1874, resolved to appeal to the country, the answer that came from the polling-booths was against him, and Mr. Disraeli reigned in his stead. For some years after that time Mr. Gladstone occupied a singular, but yet powerful position in English politics. When in 1874 he found himself relegated to the "cold shade of Opposition," he stepped back from the press of political warfare, and would fain have passed the remainder of his days in scholarly retirement; but ever and anon he "scented the battle from afar," and plunged into the parliamentary arena again, and, veteran as he was, did gallant service for

his party. Even though in January, 1875, he abdicated the leadership of the Liberal party, he still constantly held himself in readiness for conflict; and his vigorous onslaughts upon the Turkish Government, Lord Beaconsfield's foreign policy, and the Tory rule generally were amongst the most memorable oratorical sensations of the time. How Mr. Gladstone bore himself in the impetuous attack he made upon Midlothian, dislodging "the bold Buccleuch" from the stronghold which had hitherto been regarded as almost impregnable, is now a matter of history. The political events of his present term of office are, however, not sufficiently removed into the past to be properly commented upon. It should be mentioned, nevertheless, that the jubilee of his political career was celebrated far and wide, and evoked a display of enthusiasm amongst the Liberals of Great Britain that has hardly been paralleled. The congratulations that were then showered upon him were a gratifying tribute to the ability of his leadership.

We must now say a few words about Mr. Gladstone's literary career. His first great

plunge into the world of letters was, as everyone knows, in 1839, when he published his work on the *State in its Relations with the Church;* a work which evoked a very powerful article from Macaulay in the *Edinburgh Review*. The critic, while dissenting from Mr. Gladstone's theories, complimented him highly upon his talents, integrity, and benevolence, his unblemished character, and distinguished parliamentary abilities. In many respects Mr. Gladstone's book was the most able work which had been published in support of Church and State views; and it was not surprising that when, nearly thirty years afterwards, he stood forward as the parent of a measure for disestablishing the Irish Church, this book of his younger days should be brought up in evidence against him. It was interesting at this stage to find Mr. Gladstone resuming his pen as the critic of his own book, and demolishing the opinions of his youth with as much vigour as he had once advanced them. In his *Chapter of Autobiography*, issued in 1868, he said, "I, the person who have now accepted a foremost share of the responsibility of endeavouring to put an

end to the existence of the Irish Church as an Establishment, am also the person, who, of all men in official, perhaps in public, life, did, until the year 1841, recommend upon the highest and most imperious grounds, its resolute maintenance." In this notable biographical chapter, Mr. Gladstone took great pains to show by what processes this change of opinion had been brought about. To take Mr. Gladstone's first book and Lord Macaulay's article, and read both by the light of *A Chapter of Autobiography*, is a most interesting political study. In 1840, Mr. Gladstone published his work entitled *Church Principles considered in their Results*. In the interval between 1840 and 1858 was comprised the most active portion of Mr. Gladstone's political life; during that time his devotion to parliamentary duties was so complete that he had little leisure left for literary pursuits. In the last-named year, however, he surprised the world by the publication of his great work, *Studies on Homer and the Homeric Age*, which was at once received as an exhaustive and masterly effort, and won the gratitude of European scholars. The vigour of

thought, the intense sympathy with the highest poetry, and the imaginative power displayed in Mr. Gladstone's volumes, excited surprise and wonder. In later years he has frequently returned to Homer and Greece as a field for sympathetic labour. In 1869 was published his *Juventus Mundi: Gods and Men of the Heroic Age in Greece;* in 1876 his *Homeric Synchronism;* and at intervals he has contributed many articles to leading reviews and magazines bearing on the Homeric poems. In 1874, we again find Mr. Gladstone writing on Church questions. "What is Ritualism?" he asked and answered in an article in the *Contemporary Review*, much to the indignation of the Roman Catholics; and in a pamphlet on the *Vatican Decrees in their Bearing on Civil Allegiance: A Political Expostulation*, he returned to the attack with redoubled force, calling forth replies from the chief Romish prelates in England as well as from many distinguished laymen. Within the last few years the whole of Mr. Gladstone's miscellaneous writings have been published in seven volumes under the title of *Gleanings of Past Years.* These volumes do not include,

however, his essays of a strictly controversial and classical nature.

In the literary aspect of Mr. Gladstone's career, no less than in its political aspect, one is forcibly struck with the immense amount of ground he has covered, and the stupendous results he has obtained. His pen has been as ready as his tongue to give expression to his views on all manner of subjects; and if now and then he had been liable to the charge of ponderosity, there has never been absent from his writings that fulness of thought which is more valuable than mere grace of expression, and a sincerity and earnestness which carry with them the stamp of firm conviction.

Coming now to examine the social and domestic side of Mr. Gladstone's character, we are met with a diversity of action and an adaptability of mind which are altogether extraordinary. No matter in what circumstances he finds himself placed—whether at a flower show, a gathering of operatives on strike, or at a reunion of dramatic celebrities—he has always the "word in season" ready; he can always advance a wealth of pertinent ideas, and enlarge upon the duties

and obligations of the people he addresses. The daily newspapers are for ever on the alert for the words of wisdom, or of denunciation, or of entreaty that he may be prevailed upon to utter in his goings from place to place. His kindliness of heart is so great, and so active is his mind, that he is easily prevailed upon to speak or to write on anything and everything at a moment's notice. In his triumphal journeys to Midlothian and back he was waylaid at all the principal stations on the route by deputations and miscellaneous crowds, and deigned to launch forth his invectives against his political opponents with as much seriousness from a carriage-window as if he had been standing in some large hall surrounded by his own particular satellites. His industry is marvellous. His correspondence is probably as great as that of half-a-dozen editors; he is pestered daily with letters from all parts of the kingdom—letters asking his opinion on every conceivable subject; letters inviting him to take the chair at, or address, political gatherings; letters requesting charitable donations; and letters of compliment, criticism, or complaint without end. No wonder that Mr. Gladstone

should have recourse to post-cards to facilitate the sending of replies. It is a great saving of time to Mr. Gladstone to be able to inform John Smith on a post-card that he (Mr. Gladstone) never did vote for the abolition of knee-breeches, or to answer William Jones some mysterious question on the law of hypothec, or to tell Mrs. Thompson that he is much obliged for the valuable hamper of vegetables and the innumerable good wishes he has received from her. As a true financier and economist Mr. Gladstone could not pretend to shut his eyes to the advantages of communication by post-card, especially when it is considered that it was a Gladstone Government that invented it.

The public journals are much beholden to Mr. Gladstone for the variety of subjects he gives them to write about in the course of a working year. Now it is "Mr. Gladstone on Gardening;" now "Mr. Gladstone on the Study of Natural History;" now "Mr. Gladstone on Sunday Observance," or "On the Cultivation of Art," or "On Railway Travelling," or "On the Advantages of Music," or "On Italian Hymns." In the days of his brief retirement at Hawarden,

after relinquishing the leadership of the Liberal party, he found vent for his excessive energy in the occupation of woodcutting. In contrast with this vigorous taste may be put Mr. Gladstone's well-known passion for pottery. At one time he possessed a magnificent collection of china and bric-à-brac, and his knowledge of such things is that of a connoisseur. As an instance of his power of appreciating the artistic value of articles of this class, his speech on the occasion of laying the foundation stone of the Wedgwood Institute at Burslem ought not to be forgotten.

We have yet to speak of Mr. Gladstone's domestic life. Mr. Gladstone was married in 1839 to Catherine, daughter of Sir Stephen Richard Glynne of Hawarden Castle, Flintshire, a descendant of the Serjeant Glynne who was Lord Chief Justice in Cromwell's time, and to whom Butler makes this illusion in *Hudibras:*

> "Was not the king by proclamation
> Declared a rebel all over the nation?
> Did not the learned Glyn and Maynard
> To make good subjects traitors strain hard?"

It was Lord Chief Justice Glynne who bought Hawarden Castle from the Derby family after the execution of James, seventh Earl of Derby. On

the death of Mrs. Gladstone's brother, Sir Stephen Richard Glynne, the eighth baronet in 1874, the baronetcy became extinct, there being no son to inherit the title; the main portion of the wealth of the Glynnes, however, descended to Mrs. Gladstone. Mr. and Mrs. Gladstone have had eight children, seven of whom survive, four sons and three daughters. The eldest son, Mr. W. H. Gladstone, is M.P. for East Worcestershire, having previously represented Whitby in Parliament; the second son, the Rev. Stephen Edward Gladstone, is Rector of Hawarden; the third son, Henry Neville Gladstone, keeps up the commercial reputation of the Gladstone family; and the youngest son, Herbert John Gladstone, has lately gained a fair share of Parliamentary honours. At the general election of 1880 he unsuccessfully contested Middlesex in the Liberal interest, but was afterwards elected for Leeds in place of his father, who was elected both for Leeds and Midlothian, but decided to sit for the latter constituency. Mr. Gladstone's eldest daughter, Agnes, is the wife of the Rev. E. C. Wickham, M.A., head-master of Wellington College. His two other daughters, Mary and Helen are unmarried.

In thus rapidly sketching a long and illustrious career many important features have necessarily passed unnoticed, but such a broad general outline has been marked out as will, it is hoped, indicate the main stages by which Mr. Gladstone has attained to his present greatness. He has been more lauded and more denounced, probably, than any man of his time. He has been accused of almost every possible political crime, and not a few private ones. It has been asserted that he is a Jesuit, that he is a Russian spy, and that, in fact, in him has been personified all the seven cardinal sins. So many evil things were said against him a couple of years ago that the Turkish newspapers found out that the ex-Premier was a Bulgarian. "His father was a pig-dealer in the vilayet of Kustendje," said the report; "and young Gladstone ran away at the age of sixteen to Servia, and was then, with another pig-dealer, sent to London to sell pigs. He sold the proceeds, changed his name from Trozadin to Gladstone, and became a British subject. Fortune favoured him till he became Prime Minister. Gladstone has no virtues." His

enemies in England have been hardly more correct in their estimate of his character and motives. To begin with, he was, according to Macaulay, "the rising hope of those stern and unbending Tories;" to-day he is the Tories' evil genius, following them with his merciless shafts of deprecation whichever way they turn. On the other hand, the Liberals regard him with such an amount of admiration and devotion as they have had for no other leader in modern times. To them he is the perfect statesman, the man who combines in himself the highest gifts of oratory, the greatest ability as a financier, and the most honest and upright views of statesmanship of any man living. One would have liked Macaulay to have been spared to see the change which has come over Mr. Gladstone's political theories in these later years, and to have expressed his opinion upon them in the same free and candid manner that he did in 1839. He would have found that there was little that was "unbending" in Mr. Gladstone's Toryism, after all, and would have been astonished to see that the once member for Newark had developed into a much more

advanced Liberal than ever Lord Macaulay himself could claim to be. But even at the commencement of his parliamentary career Mr. Gladstone was too extensive in his mental range to admit of his being brought within the focus of ordinary criticism. It has often been unfortunate for Mr. Gladstone that he has seen so much of a subject at one time; he has had a clear view of all the shadows that have been hovering around, and has often fought with them when it might have been better to have passed them by. The shadows have occassionally been more to him than the substance. "He has one gift," said Macaulay, "most dangerous to a speculator, a vast command of a kind of language, grave and majestic, but of vague and uncertain import." It is not a difficult transition from this charge of redundancy of words to a more recent charge made by Lord Beaconsfield against Mr. Gladstone's "exuberant verbosity." Certainly Mr. Gladstone has excelled all living men in the length and number of his speeches, but it is from the fulness of his heart and the passion that is within his soul that he has spoken, not for the sake

of any mere oratorical display. Speaking has been as natural to him as thinking or breathing, and Nature, and not art, has always been his prompter. To Mr. Gladstone life, and above all statesmanship, is a very serious matter. He cannot bring himself, except on very rare occasions, to deal with a question tenderly and airily; he is too sincere and earnest for that; there is such a supreme gravity about him that sallies of wit and little sparkles of playfulness are almost entirely lost upon him. His solemnity of style has been in strange contrast to the verbal sharp-shooting which Lord Beaconsfield so frequently indulged in, and of which Mr. Gladstone has so often been the victim. The obscure member who rose to assail the great Conservative leader, in the House of Commons period of his existence, was lightly and unceremoniously brushed away; a similar personage rising to arraign Mr. Gladstone as a traitor and a trickster, and really too insignificant and absurd to be able to gain the sympathy of his own side of the House, would provoke Mr. Gladstone to turn upon him the full force of his indignation. It is something

like answering a smart rap inflicted by a cane with a heavy blow from a sledge-hammer. But, notwithstanding this absence of the lighter weapons of oratory, Mr. Gladstone is one of the finest speakers that have ever graced the British Parliament. When the career of Mr. Gladstone comes to be regarded apart from the excitement and prejudice of contemporary events; when he has finally ended his labours and doffed his harness; when the shadows of party warfare have moved away from the scene, driven back by the advancing rush of fresh parties and fresh objects of contention; and when the biographers and historians of a later generation step forward to assess the good and evil which the statesman of to-day may have wrought—when all these things come to pass the name of Mr. Gladstone will be more bright and lustrous even than now, and the world will hold him in memory for the great and good work he has done for his country, and for the noble piety and integrity of his life.

Mr. Robertson Gladstone.

As we have already shown, Mr. Robertson Gladstone was the only commercial man amongst the sons of Sir John Gladstone. The fortunes of the Gladstone family had been already made in business when Mr. Robertson Gladstone elected to continue the house of Gladstone & Co.; nevertheless, when he came to manhood, he threw himself into the work with as much ardour as if his fortune had been still to make. Mr. Robertson Gladstone, like George Heriot, was of opinion that commerce was most honourable, and he followed it diligently and with profit for a large number of years. While his brother, Mr. W. E. Gladstone, was devoting all his strength and intellect to the work of the nation, Mr. Robertson Gladstone was quietly, steadily, and persistently extending the operations of the firm of Gladstone and Co., of which he rose to be the head on the death of his father in 1851. As a business man he was highly respected, and in the public affairs of Liverpool always took the most lively interest. In 1852 he was elected Mayor of the borough, and was repeatedly solicited to allow

himself to be brought forward as a parliamentary candidate, but he declined. Like his brothers he started political life as a Tory, but during the great Free-trade agitation gradually veered to the Liberal side, and became one of the most active supporters of the cause in Liverpool. His knowledge of trade matters was very extensive; and it is said that on many questions of fiscal and commercial policy, the experience and knowledge of the Liverpool merchant was of great service to his brother when, as Chancellor of the Exchequer, he had to deal with financial and trading concerns. The strongest feeling of affection always subsisted between Mr. Robertson Gladstone and his distinguished brother. Whenever the ex-Premier came to Liverpool he invariably called at his brother's office in Orange Court. During the memorable contest for South-west Lancashire, on the polling-day Mr. W. E. Gladstone was at his brother Robertson's office, sitting in a private room, quietly engaged in the translation of a portion of his beloved *Iliad*, while telegram after telegram arrived telling how the election was proceeding. Mr. Robertson Gladstone served Liverpool with great fidelity and vigour; he was

essentially a public-spirited man and a philanthropist, and both as a magistrate and as a member of the Municipal Corporation was deeply respected. At one time he made a strong effort to put down drunkenness in Liverpool. Morning after morning he was called upon in his magisterial capacity to inflict fines upon persons charged with being drunk, and the number of cases of this nature got to be so appalling that he at last decided upon publishing in the local papers every day the names and addresses of all drunkards brought before the bench. He carried this into force for a considerable time; but, unfortunately the idea did not answer, publicity proved to have few terrors for the hordes of miserable creatures who were brought up before him for drunkenness, and his well-meant endeavours proved fruitless. He was a careful, kind, and conscientious magistrate, discharging the duties of the office with very great ability. He also gave a large share of his time to the work of the Town Council; and it is worthy of remark, as showing the regard in which he was held by his townsmen, that for very many years he sat as the representative of the most influential ward in

the town, that of Abercromby, and was year after year returned without opposition. All local movements of a charitable nature were sure of his sympathy and active support, and his benefactions to the institutions of the town were very numerous. He was a man of large heart and clear understanding, and has left a name behind him which will not soon be forgotten.

The house of Gladstone & Co. yet remains one of honour and note in Liverpool, and carries on an extensive business. The Gladstones still possess large sugar and other plantations in the West Indies, and have trade connections with various parts of the world. Mr. Robertson Gladstone's sons now take an active part in the direction of the firm's affairs, and the reputation of the old house is as great as ever. A firm that, while doing so much for the commercial advancement of the country, has in one of its sons been linked with the highest position in the State, has good cause to be remembered amongst the firms that have made their fortunes in business.

THE FORTUNES OF THE BRIGHT FAMILY.

THE FORTUNES OF THE BRIGHT FAMILY.

IN the year 1796 there sallied forth from a Derbyshire farmhouse a young man, plain of attire and frank and open of countenance, bent upon seeking his living in the rapidly-developing cotton districts of the County Palatine.

The young man's name was Jacob Bright. He was the youngest son of Jacob and Martha Bright, an esteemed Quaker couple who had then been dead some years. Jacob Bright had learned the art of handloom weaving in the house of a Derbyshire farmer, William Holme, who lived at the village of New Mills, and who, in a very modest way, combined the agricultural and the manufacturing pursuits, farming a few humble acres, and owning three or four looms. William Tew was the fellow-apprentice of Jacob Bright at New Mills; and when they were both out of their time, they started off together to go to Lancashire, their

joint purse amounting to no more than about ten shillings. "At that time," said his son, Mr. John Bright, speaking many years afterwards to a Rochdale audience, "the Government of England was engaged in a tremendous war with the French Republic. The Government of England was shedding the blood of its people as though it were but water, and squandering its treasure as though it had not been accumulated by the painful labour and the sweat of the population of this kingdom; and trade was very bad, and wages were very low, and six shillings a week was all that a handloom weaver at that time could earn." This was a sorry state of things undoubtedly; but there were those who were able to see beyond the troubled cloud that then weighed upon the commercial atmosphere, and who could, in spite of all, buoy themselves up with high aims and ambitions. Such a one was Jacob Bright, who, as the days wore on, and he toiled at his loom from morn till night, for the miserable remuneration of a shilling a day, took every available means of improving his knowledge and laying the foundations of a successful business career. Despite the great depression caused by the war, the cotton manufac-

ture was making remarkable progress, in the way of acquiring fresh mechanical facilities. The inventions of Arkwright, Hargreaves, and Crompton had begun to tell with marvellous effect upon this important branch of our textile industries, and a time of peace was all that was wanted to bring to the cotton manufacturers a good and a prosperous trade. From 1771 to 1781 there had been an increase of 76 per cent in the consumption of cotton wool, while from 1781-1791 the increase had been 320 per cent. Indeed, the impetus that had been given to the cotton industry a few years prior to Jacob Bright's entrance into Lancashire was something altogether unparalleled in the history of commerce. The muslins of India had been superseded to such an extent by the muslins of Bolton that the directors of the East India Company accounted for the falling off of their revenue in 1793 by stating that British muslins, equal in appearance to those of India, and more elegant in pattern, could then be produced for one-fourth, or perhaps more than one-third, less in price. Those were the cotton weavers' palmiest days. Those were the days when young Jacob Bright was bound apprentice

to the art; when Bolton muslin-weavers were paid "four guineas for weaving a piece of six-quarter-wide muslin, with 120 picks to the inch." In recent times we have read strange stories of the luxuriant whims and extravagances of the collier; but these were more than matched by the expensive vagaries of the muslin-weaver of the particular period we are referring to, when "the weavers," we are told, "brought home their work in top-boots and ruffled shirts, carried a cane, and in some cases took a coach." It was not unusual for them to indulge their vanity to the length of sticking five-pound notes in their hats. This was very different from having to be content with six shillings for a week's earnings, as the condition of things was when Jacob Bright was out of his apprenticeship, and went to Lancashire and obtained employment as a weaver.

It was not long, however, before Jacob Bright, by his diligence and integrity, worked himself into an improved position. Messrs John & William Holme, the sons of his former master, who had removed to Rochdale and started business there, took him into their service as bookkeeper, and for several years he devoted himself with

great assiduity to the advancement of their interests. Little by little, increased opportunities were given him of displaying his business aptitude, and in time Messrs. Holme promoted him to the responsible post of salesman. So well did he serve them in this capacity that they ultimately rewarded him with a partnership, and, like the heroes of the old story-books, he obtained the further honour of marrying a member of his employers' family. Miss Sophia Holme, his masters' sister, was a faithful and loving wife to the young Quaker salesman; and when they set up housekeeping, in a plain and homely fashion, in a cottage in Toad Lane, Rochdale, there were few happier couples to be found in the whole of the cotton district.

It was in 1802 that Jacob Bright's brothers-in-law, in conjunction with three other gentlemen (Messrs. John Taylor, James Butterworth, and William Midgley), built the mill called the Hanging Road factory. This was the second factory in Rochdale and the neighbourhood which was set to work in cotton-spinning. It was while engaged in building up a business at Hanging Road factory that in 1806 Jacob Bright had the

misfortune to lose his wife, who died childless at the early age of twenty-eight. This unhappy occurrence caused him to give himself up more unreservedly to business than ever, and during the next few years he made considerable headway with his commercial undertaking, and became one of the most familiar figures in the Manchester market. On market-days he used to drive to and from Manchester in a gig, and as time went on he contrived to make these weekly journeys serve a double purpose. There was a young Quakeress living at Bolton at that time, into whose society he had been occasionally thrown, and for whom he conceived a strong attachment. The young lady reciprocated the feeling, and was nothing loth to see the handsome Rochdale spinner drive through Bolton week by week, on his return from Manchester market, for the purpose of calling upon her. Her name was Martha Wood, and she was the daughter of a much-esteemed Bolton tradesman. Jacob Bright prospered alike in his wooing and in his business; for in 1809 he not only took to wife Miss Martha Wood, but removed his spinning frames to an old mill on Cronkeyshaw, called Greenbank. "Some

friends of his in Manchester," said Mr. John Bright, in the speech before referred to, "who were in business there as commission agents, seeing his aptitude for business, and believing in his honourable character, found the capital which was necessary to begin operations in that mill; and about the end of the year 1809 the old steam-engine which was put down there by Boulton & Watt of Birmingham, nobody knows hardly how long since, first turned round to spin cotton in that old mill."

Thenceforward Jacob Bright's business was carried on on a more extensive scale, and the former weaver's apprentice grew to be a man of wide responsibilities and great local importance. Deep earnestness, a capacity for viewing the most complicated or most exciting of business matters with a calm and philosophic spirit, and a sincere solicitude for the welfare of his workpeople, were the prominent features of his character, and many are the tales that are told illustrative of his kindness of heart and resoluteness of will. From the earliest period of his career as a mill proprietor he took a firm stand against the payment of church

rates, a yielding to which he considered would involve the sacrifice of a great moral principle on his part; so, year after year, from 1811 down to a late period of his life, he suffered the parochial authorities to levy distresses upon his goods and chattels for the amount of each successive claim, and in this way, rightly or wrongly, protested against what he believed to be a grievous injustice. It was one of the chief aims of Jacob Bright's life to act honourably towards his neighbours, and he was as exacting in the rendering as in the demanding of justice. A story with a quaint old-world flavour about it is told of the Quaker cotton-spinner and his Solomon-like mode of delivering judgment in cases which his neighbours brought before him in an informal way. Some pigs belonging to a certain Mrs. Ann Jones used to be put out to feed on Cronkeyshaw Common; but, prompted by a desire for better fare, they were in the habit of straying into Mr. Bright's garden, much to the annoyance of the man-servant, Samuel Sheriff. Samuel expelled the swine from time to time in his own rough way; and one day, his patience

being exhausted, he gave one of the pigs such a tremendous blow with a stick as to render the hind legs of the animal completely useless. Mrs. Jones appealed to Mr. Bright to give her justice; and Mr. Bright summoned Samuel, the pig, and Mrs. Jones before him *in propria personæ;* and after hearing all the evidence, and considering the arguments brought forward on either side, summed up to the effect that Mrs. Jones had been to blame for permitting her pigs to trespass in the garden after repeated warnings, and that Samuel had no right to deal the pig so hurtful a blow. His award was that the animal should be slaughtered and divided into two parts, Mrs. Jones to retain the undamaged half, and Samuel to take the wounded half, paying Mrs. Jones for it at the then market price of pork. Mrs. Jones was thus insured of the value of the pig, and, at the same time, Samuel, though ordered to pay a sum of money, had the satisfaction of having his money's worth of eating.

Greenbank was the place of residence as well as the place of business of Jacob Bright in these early days of the century; and the

public mind was so greatly agitated with the business of military slaughter, that it had little thought for the business of spinning and manufacturing. Nevertheless Jacob Bright held tenaciously to his post, and, while ever ready to sympathise with and aid the distressed work-people, he preserved an attitude of independence which gained for him the respect of all classes of the community. Meanwhile a family was growing up around him. On November 16th, 1811, his second son, now the Right Honourable John Bright, was born, and between that time and the end of 1826 nine more children were born to him. Sophia, born in 1813, married Mr. Thomas Ashworth of Poynton, and died in 1844. Thomas, the second son, was born in 1814, and is at the present time the managing partner of the business founded by his father. Priscilla was born in 1815 and married Mr. Duncan Maclaren, late M.P. for Edinburgh. Benjamin, born in 1817, died at the age of twenty-eight, at Graefenberg, in 1845. Margaret, born in 1818, was married to Mr. S. Lucas, and is now a widow, and devotes herself with much zeal to the advancement

of the temperance cause. Esther, born in 1820, was married to Mr. Vaughan, now one of the metropolitan magistrates; she died in 1850. Jacob was born on May 26th, 1821, and is now M.P. for Manchester. Gratton, born in 1823, died in 1853 at Bologna, and was buried in the Protestant cemetery there. Samuel, the youngest child, was born in 1826, and died at Geneva in 1873. The only surviving sons now are Mr. John Bright, Mr. Thomas Bright, and Mr. Jacob Bright.

In many respects Mr. Jacob Bright (the elder) was a model employer. During the many years that he continued at the head of the firm the factory system was at its worst, the wise protective enactments which have since been made by the Legislature on behalf of factory women and children having then hardly been so much as thought of. The workers were then the slaves of the masters, and oppression had sunk deep into their hearts. The cotton lords of those times did not always, in their race for wealth, stop to consider the wear and tear of human lives going on around them, and of which their insatiate greed was the cause; they only thought of the profit

that could be wrung from the prolonged daily toil of their workpeople, and took no note of the "weariness, the fever and the fret," which counted against them in the moral reckoning. Jacob Bright was the reverse of all this. To his workpeople he was much more than a mere employer of labour. He was their friend and adviser, one whom they looked up to in the time of difficulty, and whose good word they deemed it a privilege to possess. Mr. W. Robertson, to whom we are indebted for various facts herein stated, tells us how Mr. Jacob Bright would take his stand at the mill-gates on a winter's night, with a lantern in his hand, and a thick overcoat wrapped tightly round him, and as his workpeople trooped out of the factory would give the children into the charge of their elders with instructions that they should be seen safe home. In taking his walks about the mill during working hours, it is also said, he was always armed with a supply of "Spanish juice," and if he heard any of the children coughing he would instantly take the confection from his pocket and present a goodly piece to the sufferer. It was the custom in

those days for overlookers to carry leather straps, which they used freely upon the backs and shoulders of the children under their charge whenever they considered a corrective necessary, which, unfortunately, was very often. Mr. Jacob Bright, however, would never allow such an instrument to be introduced in his works, but in cases of neglect or disobedience the offenders were put out in a corner of the stairs until they showed signs of contrition. None could have been more kind or considerate towards factory children than he, and no surer way of obtaining a holiday could be devised than sending a deputation of children to plead for it. Naturally Mr. Bright interested himself greatly in promoting the education of the children in his employment. A certain portion of the working hours of each day were set apart for educational purposes; and an old man named Joshua Haigh used to attend in the warehouse to instruct the children in reading, writing, and arithmetic, by which means many young people were put in possession of such elements of knowledge as fitted them in after life to advance to higher positions then they would otherwise have been enabled to do. The ladies

of Mr. Bright's family also established a sewing-class for the benefit of the girls employed at the mill. Ultimately, however, as the business expanded and the number of factory children increased, a school was built in connection with the mill, and a more formal, though probably not a more effective, system of educational training was adopted. Mrs. Bright was not less mindful than her husband of the comfort and welfare of the children and young women who worked at Greenbank; she used to have an evening class of girls twice a week at one of the cottages near the mill, and did her best to establish in the minds of her scholars a proper knowledge of household matters and a due appreciation of domestic comfort. Nor did Mrs. Bright's good work stop here. In the early years of her married life she not only presided in the best and fullest sense over the affairs of her household, but was a very efficient assistant to her husband in his bookkeeping. This estimable English lady, always alive to the duties and obligations of her position, continued to fulfil the charitable promptings of her deeply sensitive heart, until in the summer of 1830 she died, at the early age of

forty-one, and was buried in the Friends' graveyard at Rochdale.

By the year 1823 Mr. Bright had so extended his business operations that he had no fewer than 7,000 spindles at work in his factory, a somewhat formidable number for that day. The business that poured in upon Mr. Bright in the third decade of the century, when peace had been re-established and King Cotton ruled supreme over the textile industries of the country, was more than the old mill at Greenbank was able to cope with, so the successful spinner built a large new mill on another part of Cronkeyshaw Common, where in course of time other mills were erected. On April 10th, 1838, however, a fire broke out in the larger of the new factories, caused by the friction of one of the scutching machines, and the whole building, with its valuable new machinery, was destroyed, damage to the amount of 30,000*l.* being thereby sustained. This large sum was to a considerable extent covered by insurance; nevertheless the fire was a serious loss to Mr. Bright, and he suffered great inconvenience in his business until the destroyed factory was replaced by another new building.

The work of reconstruction occupied about eighteen months, during which time the old mills were kept running night and day, by which means most of the workpeople who might otherwise have been thrown out of employment were kept in work. In 1840 the new mill was in full operation, and business prospered so greatly with the Brights that still another new factory, larger than any of those previously erected, was put up. Other extensions have been made in more recent years, including the erection of a gigantic shed; and at the present time the firm of Bright Brothers carry on one of the most important establishments in the district, and employ not fewer than 1,500 workpeople. A remarkable impetus was given to the business by the introduction of Mr. Bright's sons into the concern as they respectively grew to manhood, and to their spirit, enterprise, and intelligent vigour the rapid extensions referred to were chiefly due. Mr. Jacob Bright, the father, retired from the firm in 1839, since which time the business has been continued under the style of "John Bright & Brothers." Little remains to be added concerning the founder of this firm. From the

date of his retirement in 1839 Mr. Jacob Bright lived a life of comparative seclusion, watching with quiet interest the growth of the Fieldhouse factories, as the new works were called, and having the years of his old age made doubly happy by the knowledge that the family name acquired lasting lustre from the fame which was steadily gathering round the person of his eldest son. In 1845, when seventy years of age, Mr. Jacob Bright married a third time, taking to wife Miss Mary Metcalfe, who had for many years superintended his household, and whose devotion to his interests thus received its most graceful acknowledgment. Mr. Bright died on July 7th, 1851, at the age of seventy-six.

It is now necessary that we should speak of the career of Mr. John Bright, and endeavour to show how the lines of his business life intermingled with the lines of that political existence which has now come to be part of the nation's history.

John Bright's early years were passed amidst scenes of great political agitation. On every hand the outlook was dark and cheerless; the entire horizon of social and political life presented

a troubled aspect; the masses, ground down by poverty, and rendered still more unhappy by being shut out from parliamentary representation, were for ever getting up petitions, holding multitudinous demonstrations, and clamouring wildly for reforms of various kinds. During John Bright's boyhood the country, indeed, was kept in a continual ferment; and nowhere was the excitement greater than in Lancashire, where Samuel Bamford, Orator Hunt, the Manchester "Blanketeers," and their legions of followers kept up the agitation for many years, and, despite many excesses, and mistakes, succeeded eventually in convincing those in high places to the general justice of their demands. All these scenes of turbulence and excitement made a deep impression upon the youthful John Bright; and when the agitators came to Rochdale, and held great meetings on Cronkeyshaw Common—as they not unfrequently did—the sturdy bright-eyed Quaker lad would occasionally mingle with the crowd, and listen eagerly to the fiery speeches in which the leaders of the movement denounced their oppressors and laid bare their poverty and their sufferings. Though but eight years old

when the "Peterloo Massacre" took place, the event made a deep impression upon the boy's mind; and as this was succeeded by fresh developments of popular agitation, and as day by day he came to hear these things discussed in his own family circle, his sympathies were gradually awakened, and all his heart was given up to the advancement of the people's cause. Even in his business experiences he was forced into contact with the political questions of the day; the working classes of Rochdale were reduced to the most wretched condition, and the Brights, in their endeavours to find employment for the poor operatives, or in administering relief, had many political truths thrust upon them—truths which those outside the struggle could not fully understand or appreciate, but which were by no means lost upon the young man, who, in the time to come, was to assume the position of one of the people's chief leaders. John Bright divided his time in those days pretty evenly between business and study; his business, no less than his studies, assisting in the formation of that breadth of mind, and the cultivation of that native eloquence, which,

in later years, have so greatly distinguished him. Even those who do not hold with his views of political matters will not deny him the possession of these high qualities. The study of politics, indeed, was instinctive with him; and his leanings towards oratory were displayed almost as soon as he had attained to manhood. It was his custom to read the newspaper to the family circle of an evening; and at other times, when not engaged in business, he would be occupied in some work which tended either to his own mental improvement or the advancement of the people generally. His educational training had not been of an ambitious kind. One of his first schools was a local establishment superintended by Mr. William Littlewood at Townhead; thence he was removed to the Friends' School at Ackworth, and subsequently was sent to a school of a similar class at York. He continued at York until fifteen years of age, when, his health giving way somewhat, his father placed him under a tutor at Newton-in-Bolland, where the pure Yorkshire air and a comparative freedom from scholastic restraint speedily restored him to health, and he then returned to Rochdale

and took his place by his father's side in the factory, making himself acquainted with all the details of cotton-spinning, and applying himself thereto with the earnestness of one who looked only to commercial activity and enterprise as his future sphere of labour. So matters went on until Mr. Bright was attracted, first by one popular movement, and then by another, to mount the platform and take part with those reformers with whom he afterwards threw in his lot with so much power and effect.

The temperance movement attracted Mr. Bright's attention and sympathy as early as 1830; and it was on behalf of this cause that, with the modesty and trepidation of an unfledged orator, he made his first attempt at speaking in public. For a year or two Mr. Bright employed himself very earnestly in advocating teetotal views; but in course of time his mind became absorbed in the more exciting political questions of the period, and he allied himself with that body of reformers with which his name will always remain associated. In 1833 Mr. Bright and a number of friends instituted the Rochdale Literary and Philosophical

Society, and Mr. Bright presided at their first meeting. This society formed itself into a sort of debating club; and it is recorded that Mr. Bright brought forward many subjects for discussion, and devoted much energy to the elaboration of his views on those occasions, introducing such subjects for debate as the following: "From our study of history, ancient and modern, what form of government appears the best suited to promote the happiness of mankind?" "The policy or impolicy of laws for the restriction of the importation of corn," &c. That John Bright would be the prime moving spirit in a society like this goes without saying; and during the eight or ten years that he gave himself up to its debates and meetings he was steadily improving himself in that oratorical art in which he was destined in after years to attain so high a degree of proficiency.

In 1837 or 1838 Mr. Bright made the acquaintance of Richard Cobden. Cobden had by this time earned for himself a name and a position in Manchester, and was well known for the earnestness and ability with which he advocated

the causes of popular education and the repeal of the Corn Laws. It was proposed to establish a "British School" in Rochdale, and Mr. Bright one day, while visiting Manchester market, called upon Mr. Cobden and asked kim to come to Rochdale to address a public meeting there in support of the new school movement. Cobden consented, and at the meeting in question both he and Bright delivered speeches. It is said that Cobden was much struck with Mr. Bright's impressive style of speaking, and from that time until Cobden's death the closest friendship existed between the two. Cobden stayed at Mr. Jacob Bright's house, and before leaving strongly urged Mr. John Bright to join the Anti-Corn-Law movement. It thus came about that on the formation of the Anti-Corn-Law League in 1838 the names of Richard Cobden and John Bright appeared together on the list of the provisional committee, and Mr. Bright and his father contributed handsomely to the League's funds. A sum of 11,000*l.* was raised in a few weeks, and the operations of the League rapidly spread through all parts of the country, speakers of ability and eminence being

engaged to address meetings and promote the scheme in every possible way. On February 2nd, 1839, Mr. Bright addressed an open-air meeting on the subject in his native town; and in the same year he and Cobden attended a large Anti-Corn-Law meeting at Bolton, this being the first time that the two popular leaders met on the platform together on this question. It was not until 1841, however, that Mr. Bright threw himself wholly and entirely into the struggle. The cares of business and the attachments of home-life were up to that time first and foremost in his mind; in 1839 he had erected the modest but comfortable residence to which he gave the name of "One Ash," and, with his newly-married wife, Elizabeth Priestman, had taken up his abode there. This amiable lady died in 1841, at the age of twenty-six; and it was while the young husband was in the depth of his bereavement that his friend Cobden came to him and summoned him to take part in the great fight which they afterwards carried on, striving side by side until their efforts were at last crowned with victory. Mr. Bright, on the occasion of the unveiling of the Cobden statue at Bradford

in 1877, made touching allusion to this circumstance. "At that time," he said, "I was at Leamington, and on the day when Mr. Cobden called upon me—for he happened to be there at the time on a visit to some relatives—I was in the depth of grief, I might almost say of despair, for the light and sunshine of my house had been extinguished. All that was left on earth of my young wife, except the memory of a sainted life and of a too brief happiness, was lying still and cold in the chamber above us. Mr. Cobden called upon me as his friend, and addressed me, as you might suppose, with words of condolence. After a time he looked up and said, 'There are thousands of houses in England at this moment where wives, mothers, and children are dying of hunger. Now,' he said, 'when the first paroxysm of your grief is past, I would advise you to come with me, and we will never rest until the Corn Law is repealed.'" Thenceforward he never desisted in his efforts for the attainment of this object; and the power, energy, and eloquence which he brought to bear upon the movement are now matters of history so familiar as to be within the knowledge of every

one. When once Mr. Bright had decided that the cause was a just and a righteous one, he never faltered in his endeavours to impress its acceptance upon the country. He soon achieved a considerable reputation as a speaker, and received several invitations to stand as a Free-trade candidate for parliamentary honours. In 1843 he yielded to the solicitations of the Free-traders of Durham, and contested that city in opposition to Lord Dungannon, but was defeated by a majority of 101. Lord Dungannon was in the same year, however, unseated for bribery, and Mr. Bright came forward again, being this time opposed by Mr. Purvis, Q.C. Mr. Bright was returned by a majority of 78, and on August 7th, 1843, he made his maiden speech in the House of Commons, speaking for upwards of half an hour in favour of Mr. Ewart's motion for the extension of the principle of Free-trade. As an instance of the kind of opposition that Mr. Bright had to hold up against, it may be mentioned that during his second electioneering campaign at Durham one of the Newcastle journals advised its readers as follows: "It is stated that Mr. Bright, the Anti-Corn-Law agitator, is expected

to visit the wool-fair, which will be held at Alnwick shortly, in order to scatter the seeds of disaffection in that quarter. Should he make his appearance, which is not improbable, it is to be hoped there may be found some stalwart yeoman to treat the disaffected vagabond as he deserves." Threats of this sort, however, were powerless to deter Mr. Bright from pursuing the course he had marked out for himself, and he fared at Alnwick as at many other places—he subdued, if he did not convince, his opponents by the power of his eloquence, and came and went without being molested. For seven years the Anti-Corn-Law, agitation was kept up with unabated vigour, and in June, 1846, the much desired reform was sanctioned by the Legislature. In 1847 Mr. Bright was elected unopposed, along with Mr. Milner Gibson, to represent Manchester; and for the next ten years he continued to hold that honourable and responsible position, taking an active part in the parliamentary work of the time, and holding one of the foremost positions in the House of Commons as an orator. The enumeration of Mr. Bright's parliamentary successes is somewhat apart from our purpose;

but it is not too much to say that, considered quite irrespective of political colour, those successes were sufficient to stamp Mr. Bright as one of the most dignified, weighty, conscientious, and impressive speakers that our legislative assembly has known in modern times; while on the platform, as a man of the people speaking to the people, he is unsurpassed in the art of swaying the feelings and touching the hearts of the multitude.

During all the ten years that Mr. Bright represented Manchester, the business of Bright Brothers prospered materially; their works were considerably extended; and while Mr. John Bright was actively engaged in attending to his parliamentary duties, his brothers, Mr. Thomas Bright and Mr. Jacob Bright, were, with no less assiduity, devoting themselves to the advancement of the commercial interests of the family. In addition to the cotton-spinning business, commenced, and for so many years profitably carried on, by their father, Messrs. Bright Brothers entered largely into another branch of trade—the carpet manufacture. In the course of their experiments and extensions in the last-named department,

Messrs. Bright found it necessary to adopt many improvements in machinery and appliances, and in doing this they got entangled in a lawsuit which was a sort of *cause célèbre* in its time. Messrs. Crossley & Sons of Halifax, the well-known carpet manufacturers, contended that their Rochdale competitors had infringed a certain patent granted to Messrs. Crossley for "improvements in printing yarns for, and in weaving carpets and other fabrics." An action was commenced by Messrs. Crossley against Messrs. Bright in September, 1859, and the litigation was not brought to an end until some time in 1864. The proceedings were in respect of two patents —one granted to Messrs. Crossley, Collier & Hudson in 1850, and the other granted to Mr. William Wood in the same year, of both which patents Messrs. Crossley had become proprietors. In an early stage of the litigation Messrs. Crossley found it necessary to disclaim a portion of Wood's patent, and proceedings had to be commenced anew, Wood's patent forming the subject of one action, and Crossley, Collier & Hudson's patent of another. Both actions stood for trial at the London Guildhall on July 1st, 1862, and

were then referred to arbitration, Mr. Lush, Q.C. (afterwards Mr. Justice Lush), being the arbitrator mutually agreed upon by both parties. Mr. Grove, Q.C. (now Mr. Justice Grove), and Mr. Webster were counsel for the plaintiffs, and Mr. Manisty, Q.C. (now Mr. Justice Manisty), and Mr. Hindmarsh were for the defendants. The reference on Wood's patent was taken first. After various sittings, held at the Westminster Palace Hotel, the arbitrator, in January, 1863, delivered his award in favour of Messrs. Bright, finding that they had not infringed Wood's patent. The reference on Crossley, Collier & Hudson's patent began on May 16th, 1863, and was many times adjourned. The witnesses examined in the course of the proceedings included Sir F. Crossley, M.P., Mr. Bright, and many other distinguished persons. The models shown on both sides were extremely numerous; and in the course of the proceedings the plaintiffs sent up to London, and worked by steam-power, a loom containing the improvements in weaving alleged to have been infringed. Messrs. Bright also had two looms set up and worked by steam-power in the neighbourhood of Westminster. After an inquiry extending over

twenty-one days, the proceedings before the arbitrator were brought to a close on February 16th, 1864. The award was delivered on the 8th of the following month, the arbitrator having found that the plaintiffs were not the first and true inventors of the improvements in printing yarns, and that the defendants had not infringed that part of the patent which related to improvements in weaving carpets and other fabrics. This was an important victory for Messrs. Bright, and from that time to this they have continued to hold a good position amongst the carpet manufacturers of this country.

There was one question in connection with factory management, however, in which, curious to say, Messrs. Bright opposed themselves to popular feeling, and that was in regard to the Ten Hours' movement. While the present Lord Shaftesbury, Richard Oastler, John Fielden, and others were agitating for the restriction of the hours of labour in factories, and while philanthropic zeal generally was allying itself with this great crusade, Messrs. Bright actively opposed the movement, conscientiously believing that it was wrong in principle and could result

in no good. They judged the question solely from their own standpoint, it would seem. Anxious to a remarkable degree for the welfare of their workpeople, and promoting their interests in every possible way, Messrs. Bright could not see that anything was to be gained by legislative interference; moreover, it was contrary to their ideas of Free-trade that Parliament should step in between employer and employed in the manner proposed. There were those who accused John Bright in that exciting time of acting from motives of self-interest; but with his whole career spread out before us, with all its light and shadow showing in clear outline, we can now see that in this, as in all else, he sincerely thought he was doing that which was most conducive to the people's true interests. Mr. Cobden, Mr. Joseph Hume, and many other friends of the working classes took the same stand as the Brights upon this question. "The real object of the promoters of this measure," said John Bright, "is not to take care of the children under eighteen and women of all ages, but to interfere by law with the labour of all persons, of whatever age and whatever sex they

may be, who are engaged in the manufactures of this country, and to give to these classes that measure of legislative protection—I use the word 'protection' in the same sense in which it has been used by all who are in favour of monopolies—a protection that will diminish the hours of labour while it will continue a rate of wages which, from the days of Sadler till the present time, is clearly a rate higher than labour in a free market can command." He believed that a diminution in the hours of labour could and would be made without the interference of Parliament. It is worthy of remark, however, that, while holding these unpopular opinions, the Brights made no objection to their work-people and manager forwarding to the House of Commons a petition in favour of the Ten Hours' Bill. Mr. John Bright's opposition to this movement was much resented by the working classes on the occasion of his nomination for Manchester in July, 1847, and for a time he was unable to obtain a hearing from the hustings. "There are points of difference," he said, "serious points of difference, between me and some of those to whom I now speak; but

the opinions I hold I hold honestly and maintain fearlessly, and I do not think the worse of any man because he holds different opinions from mine. . . . Although there are those here of the operative class who consider me as their enemy, I can tell them that I would much rather have their ill-will now because I advocated their interests than their ill-will hereafter because I had betrayed them. I am blamed because I did not give my assent to a measure which was popular with a portion of the operatives; I am blamed because I opposed the Ten Hours' Bill—because I did not consent that Parliament should close the manufactories of this country for two hours more a day. Well, I may be wrong; but if I am wrong I am wrong in ignorance, and not in intention. I boldly stated my opinion; I have argued for it, spoken for it, voted for it, and am ready to maintain it; but henceforth we shall have an opportunity of seeing which is right—the advocates of the measure or its opponents. If it be successful, I shall rejoice; if it be not, I shall be willing to help in its amendment." Such honesty of utterance as

this could not fail to make itself felt through the covering of prejudice which had spread itself round the hearts of the operatives; but, although Mr. Bright would to-day probably admit that the Ten Hours' Bill really proved a great boon to the country, and that he himself made a mistake in judgment in regard to it, he has since that time, by the sincerity and high purpose of his life, amply vindicated his claim to be the true friend of the people.

Mr. Bright's attitude, on the occasion of the breaking out of the Crimean war, cost him his seat for Manchester in 1857; but Birmingham shortly afterwards paid him the compliment of electing him, and he has continued to represent the metropolis of the Midlands from that time to the present. Amongst his more powerful oratorical achievements may be mentioned his masterly speech in opposition to Mr. Roebuck's motion, in June, 1863, for the recognition of the Southern Confederacy of the United States; his speeches on the Reform movement, when Mr. Gladstone's efforts in that direction were defeated by the action of the "Adullamites," were also memorable examples of vigorous and impressive

eloquence. On the formation of Mr. Gladstone's former Administration, Mr. Bright was offered the post of Secretary of State for India; but the condition of his health was not sufficiently good to justify him in undertaking the duties of so arduous an office, and he afterwards, with some reluctance, accepted the appointment of President of the Board of Trade, which he held for two years—from December, 1868, to December, 1870. His health was at this time in a very precarious state, and for the next three years his presence in the House of Commons was almost unknown, the right honourable gentleman during that time living in almost complete retirement. When, in the autumn of 1873, Mr. Bright found himself restored to health, he appeared before his constituents in Bingley Hall, Birmingham, when 15,000 persons assembled to welcome him back to public life. He now consented to take office again in Mr. Gladstone's reconstructed Cabinet and succeeded Mr. Childers as Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, which post he retained until the dissolution and defeat of the Liberal Government in 1874. From 1874 to the present

time Mr. Bright has been a stately and dignified figure in our political life; for, though his public appearances have been less numerous than formerly, the occasions when he has allowed his voice to be heard mark distinct stages of recent political movement.

It would be easy to set forth the many prominent public appearances which Mr. Bright has made since then both in Parliament and out of it; to point out what important public measures he has either originated or strikingly supported; to mention the great occasions on which he has addressed large multitudes of his fellow-countrymen at public meetings at Birmingham and elsewhere; to allude to some of his wonderfully felicitous phrases or expressions; or to enlarge upon the beauty and manliness of his oratory generally. But these are things already written deeply upon the hearts of the people, and indelibly inscribed in the pages of our parliamentary history. All that need be said further with regard to him in connection with our object is, that in June, 1847, he married, for his second wife, Margaret Elizabeth Leatham, daughter of Mr.

Leatham, the Wakefield banker, and sister of Mr. E. A. Leatham, M.P. This estimable lady died, May 13th, 1878.

Concerning Mr. John Bright's brothers—Mr. Thomas Bright and Mr. Jacob Bright—it will be necessary to add a few words. The former has devoted himself during the greater portion of his life to the management of the business concerns of Bright Brothers; and his extensive knowledge of commercial affairs, his energy, and his enterprise have largely assisted in the development of the manufactures carried on at the Fieldhouse factories. Mr. Jacob Bright has to some extent emulated his elder brother and taken to public life, being now one of the representatives of Manchester.

The Fieldhouse factories are not to be reckoned amongst the "show" manufacturing establishments of the cotton districts; they are plain substantial buildings, well adapted for the purposes to which they have been devoted, but are wholly devoid of architectural pretensions. They have, by excellent management, been the means not only of making for the Brights their fortunes, bnt have provided profitable employ-

ment for a large community of workers, between whom and their masters there has existed a feeling of attachment which in times of emergency or trial has often resulted in great good. When the Plug Rioters descended upon Rochdale during their memorable raid of 1842, the workpeople were ordered out of the Cronkeyshaw mill, and the machinery was stopped. The mob collected round old Mr. Jacob Bright's house, and gave way to the wildest demonstrations, singing songs, and rending the air with their shouts. Mr. Bright sent for three "skips" full of bread, and with his own hands distributed it amongst the clamorous rioters. Money was also given to them, and after holding one or two noisy meetings the mob went off in the direction of Bacup. The next day the mills were again set to work, but they had hardly begun when the news came that the rioters were returning. The rioters came, and for a time a dangerous disturbance seemed imminent. The military and the police were called out, the Riot Act was read, and the town was in the utmost disorder and ferment. At this juncture Mr. John Bright came forward and addressed a

large concourse of rioters and others assembled near Greenbank mill, urging them to refrain from violence, and announcing that his father and he were ready to open their factory any day when the workpeople were ready to return, but that they could not in the then unfortunate condition of trade concede an advance of wages. Mr. Bright followed this up a day or two afterwards with a sort of manifesto to the working men of Rochdale, in which he said, "You are suffering, you have long suffered, your wages for many years declined, and your position has gradually and steadily become worse. Your sufferings have naturally produced discontent, and you have turned eagerly to almost any scheme which gave hope of relief . . . . An advance of wages to the rate paid in 1840 and ten hours' labour per day were the demands you were urged to make. But when the turning out in this district was completed, and you had become excited, these demands were abandoned, and you were urged to refuse to work until the Charter became the law. Many of you know full well that neither Act of Parliament nor act of multitude can

keep up wages. You know that trade has long been bad, and that with bad trade wages cannot rise." The advice of Mr. Bright on this occasion appears to have been more effective than the repressive measures adopted by the local authorities; for in a day or two work was resumed both at Mr. Bright's and at the other factories in Rochdale, and the difficulty was tided over.

As years went on and trade improved, both workpeople and masters prospered in a degree that far exceeded all anticipation; and so things progressed until the time of the American civil war, when the whole of the cotton districts were plunged into the most deplorable distress. The story of the sufferings of the Lancashire people during the Cotton Famine constitutes one of the gloomiest chapters in modern history; and the patient endurance of the sufferers, and the readiness with which the entire nation responded to the appeals for help that were made on their behalf, will never be forgotten. The true "grit" of the English character has seldom been more thoroughly manifested than was

the case in this time of tribulation and want, and only those who lived amongst the grief-stricken toilers could realise the extent to which the poor were made to suffer. Many factories were stopped altogether, and the remainder were compelled to adopt short time. Rochdale, although partly engaged in the woollen and carpet trades, felt the depressing effects of the stoppage of the cotton supplies almost as keenly as those towns which were entirely employed in the cotton manufacture. A distress committee was formed in Rochdale, under whose superintendence soup-kitchens were opened, and other modes of administering relief adopted. The Brights were amongst the first to take part in this good work; Mr. John Bright took steps along with the Mayor, Mr. G. L. Ashworth, to carry out a general project of charitable assistance; and in connection with their own workpeople, Messrs. Bright organised special systems of relief. The Fieldhouse factories had to run short time; but in order to provide their workpeople with the means of holding on until the distress had passed away, they augmented

their necessarily scanty wages by loans of sums of money to be repaid by instalments in more prosperous times. At the same time their cottage tenants were allowed to live rent-free, and everything that the firm could do to ameliorate the condition of the people who were dependent upon them was cheerfully done. Messrs. Bright also showed consideration for their workpeople in another way; they set apart one of the large rooms in their mill as a schoolroom for adults, and provided them with instruction in the elementary branches of education; and likewise supplied them with books, newspapers, and periodicals, thus affording them the best possible means of using the time of their enforced idleness.

But in spite of all that Messrs. Bright have done to promote the welfare of their workpeople year after year, there have been times when political rancour has engendered statements intended to give the idea that the Brights did not put into practice in their own business concerns those high principles of conduct which they so persistently contended for in imperial matters. In 1867 these

slanders were circulated so freely that Messrs. Bright's workpeople were prompted to come forward themselves to repudiate the assertions which had been made, and which were intended mainly to injure Mr. John Bright. The *employés* of Messrs. Bright, therefore, on January 25th, 1867, presented Mr. Bright with an address in the Public Hall, Rochdale, in which they desired to express their entire sympathy with, and their sincere respect for, him under the malignant slanders which had been urged against him as their employer. "We feel impelled by a sense of duty," the address went on to say, "to take this opportunity of declaring to you that all the reports which have been circulated against you throughout the country are entirely false. They have been made and written by parties who, to make political capital, have attacked in an unscrupulous and base manner your private character. We are well aware that the consciousness of those attacks being untrue will be sufficient to uphold you in the dignity to which you have attained. Your conduct as our employer has been such as to meet with

our entire approval. You have always endeavoured to improve our moral, social, and intellectual well-being," &c. A more complete reply to slanderous charges could not have been made.

Mr. Thomas Bright and Mr. Jacob Bright, brothers and partners of Mr. John Bright, are more familiar figures in Rochdale and Manchester than their elder brother. They all received the same educational and business training, and as they grew to manhood were made members of the firm originated by their father. Mr. Thomas Bright is a magistrate for the county of Lancaster; but he has had no ambition beyond his business, and in that he has displayed great energy, foresight, and aptitude.

Mr. Jacob Bright evinced a lively interest in public affairs from a very early age, and his townsmen showed their appreciation of his great services to the social and intellectual improvement of the people by electing him their first mayor in 1856. In advocating political reforms he has often been in advance of his time; but, like his elder brother, he has always had the courage of his opinions, and has given free

utterance to them, whether popular or not. He took the same stand as his brother in regard to the Ten Hours' movement, and on the question of the Crimean war. Four times have the electors of Manchester chosen him for one of their representatives—in 1867, 1868, 1876, and 1880. In 1876 his opponents attacked him with the same weapon that ten years before had been used against Mr. John Bright. Mr. Jacob Bright was slandered as an employer of labour, and was told that where he was best known—in Rochdale—he would not dare to come forward. A crowded meeting of Messrs. Bright's workpeople was immediately held to protest against such unfounded statements, and a memorial, signed by 553 adult workpeople was presented to Mr. Jacob Bright, testifying that the imputations were "base and groundless calumnies," that the firm of which Mr. Bright was a member had been in existence for about eighty years, and that during that time there had been only one strike, and that merely of a partial character. Mr. Jacob Bright has not signalised himself in Parliament like his brother; still he has taken up a fairly prominent position, and has identified him-

self closely with several important measures. The woman's suffrage movement is one of his pet projects, and the ladies of England owe him a debt of gratitude for the gallant manner in which he has pleaded their cause both in and out of Parliament.

The business affairs of Messrs. Bright have grown with the times. As England's commercial prosperity has increased, the Fieldhouse factories have been extended; and with the accession of the grandsons of Mr. Jacob Bright, senior, to the firm, new energies and new developments have been given to the original undertaking. Messrs. Bright have participated substantially in the good things which have resulted from Lancashire's long supremacy in the cotton industries; and as the cotton consumption has fallen off they have not been slow to adapt themselves to other branches of manufacture. Whether in the future we shall see the cotton, woollen, worsted, or carpet industries fully restored to the same high conditions of prosperity as they held in the past is more than can at present be predicted; but howsoever we may fare in the time to come, we shall not fail to give praise to the men who, like Messrs.

Bright, have, while engaged in carrying on a large commercial establishment for their own profit and advantage, at the same time made it one of the chief aims of their lives to advance in every legitimate way the interests not only of their own workpeople, but of the working classes generally. Justice and virtue are the principles which have guided the Brights in all their business relations; and these are the principles which they have always endeavoured to instil into the minds of those with whom they have been brought into contact. It would be difficult to recall any nobler views of life and duty than those set forth by Mr. John Bright in the course of a speech that he delivered in Birmingham in 1870. "It is a fact," he said, "that no government, that no administration, that no laws, and that no amount of industry or commerce, that no extent of freedom, can give prosperity and solid comfort in the homes of the people, unless there be in those homes economy, temperance, and the practice of virtue. This is needful for all; but it is especially needful, most needful in some respects, for those whose possessions are the least abundant and the least secured.

If we could subtract from the ignorance, the poverty, the suffering, the sickness, and the crime which are now witnessed amongst us, the ignorance, the poverty, the suffering, the sickness, and the crime which are caused by one single, but the most prevalent, habit or vice of drinking needlessly, which destroys the body and mind and home and family, do we not all feel that this country would be so changed, and so changed for the better, that it would almost be impossible for us to know it again? Let me, then, in conclusion say what is upon my heart to say, what I know to be true, what I have felt every hour of my life when I have been discussing great questions affecting the condition of the working classes—let me say this to all the people: that it is by a combination of a wise government and a virtuous people, and not otherwise, that we may hope to make some steps towards that blessed time when there shall be no longer complaining in our streets, and when our garners shall be full, affording all manner of store." The man who can give expression to such thoughts as these, and can live up to them, no matter what his position in life may be, is sure of being held in grateful

remembrance; and that this will be the case as regards Mr. John Bright and those other members of his firm and family who have evinced the same integrity of conduct and high purpose, few will be disposed to deny.

THE FAIRBAIRNS OF MANCHESTER AND LEEDS.

Sir ANDREW FAIRBAIRN.

THE FAIRBAIRNS OF MANCHESTER AND LEEDS.

CARLYLE describes a man as being physically the feeblest of bipeds, but by the aid of tools a giant. "Without tools he is nothing, with tools he is all," says the philosopher: with tools "the granite mountains melt into light dust before him; he kneads glowing iron as if it were soft paste; seas are his smooth highway, winds and fire his unvarying steeds." Man's power over the forces of Nature has, indeed, been wondrously strengthened during the last hundred years, a period which may be regarded as preëminently the era of invention. The introduction of steam as a motive power opened up a vast and attractive region for inventive activity, and it is in this sphere of labour that many of the master-minds of these later days have been most successfully employed. Year by year the number and diversity of

machines have increased, and steam, in obedience to man's control, has exerted its might upon them. Machinery—which, after all, is but the embodiment of intellectual force—has been the great reorganising power of modern times, and its originators have been amongst the principal agencies in the achievement of England's manufacturing supremacy. Inventive genius has, from the time when Watt surprised the world with the result of his broodings over the tea-kettle, been fully alive to the importance of steam, and has not neglected to avail itself of the splendid opportunities which the invincible vapour has revealed. To this potent influence we owe a succession of mechanical triumphs such as the world never dreamed off before the steam era set in.

By a geological accident the northern counties of England have been able largely to monopolise the skill of the inventor of machinery. Those counties, with their rich and extensive beds of coals, their valuable ores, and their convenient streams, have naturally been the chief centres of operation for the industrious workers who have toiled to bring steam into subjection, and it is in those counties, midst the clang of hammers and

the whirr of wheels, that the mighty workshops, where the pliant metals are manipulated and wrought into machines, are mostly to be found. Newcastle, Manchester, and Leeds—the capitals, as it were, of three of the more important of the northern districts of industry—have each produced, or given scope for the employment of, men of high inventive attainments and great energy and individuality of character. Prominent amongst these skilful and persevering pioneers have been the Fairbairns of Leeds and Manchester, who, from the humblest beginnings, have advanced themselves to positions of affluence and honour.

Towards the close of the last century, there lived in the picturesque town of Kelso, in Roxburghshire, a poor family, the head of which was Andrew Fairbairn, a farm-labourer, whose quiet, thoughtful, and industrious habits won him the respect and esteem of his neighbours. Andrew Fairbairn had rather a numerous family to bring up, but very small means; he worked hard, however, in his rustic vocation, and was happy in having children of exceptional energy and originality of mind. His eldest son, William, was born in 1787; his youngest son, Peter, was born in

1799. Both sons rose to eminence as mechanical engineers; the former having a baronetcy conferred upon him, and the latter, as well as his eldest son, receiving the honour of knighthood.

It will be interesting to trace how the farmer's sons came to drift into those mechanical pursuits which they were so well qualified to follow, and which contrasted so strongly to the rural experiences of their early days; and it will be interesting also to note how completely they mastered every obstacle that beset them, and came ultimately to make a powerful and distinctive impression upon the industrial activity of the time. In this paper we must deal not only with the history of the Fairbairns of Leeds, but at the same time give a brief outline of the distinguished career of the Manchester Fairbairns, the life-stories of the two branches of the family touching and intermingling at many points. Members of the same family engaged in the same industrial labours, their histories are not only linked together by strong personal ties, but are part and parcel of the record of the mechanical progress of the century. Their influence has been indelibly impressed upon the localities which had the good

fortune to command the concentration of their energies and genius, and Manchester and Leeds have not been slow to acknowledge the work which the Fairbairns have accomplished.

Early Struggles.

Neither William nor Peter Fairbairn had the privilege of receiving any particular educational training in their younger days. William, whose first years were passed at the village of Smailholm, a few miles west of Kelso, had for his first schoolmaster an old man whose physical infirmities procured him the name of "Bowed Johnnie Ker," from whom he learned more of the art of singing than of the ordinary rudiments of knowledge. Subsequently William was removed to the parish school, presided over by a Mr. White, and under this gentleman's supervision the young scholar was put through a course of study which was as little calculated to chime in with the true bent of his mind as the singing-lessons of "Bowed Johnnie Ker" had been. Mr. White, instead of endeavouring to inculcate a really solid basis of education, lured the boy

into the attractive region of Scottish poetry and romance; and so it happened that, at the age of ten years, William Fairbairn, beyond a knowledge of reading and the first few rules of arithmetic, knew very little.

In September, 1799, Peter Fairbairn was born, and in the following month the family found it necessary to remove to Moy, in Ross-shire, where Andrew Fairbairn had taken a farm some three hundred acres in extent. Moy was two hundred miles distant from Kelso, and the journey had to be done in a covered cart. The farm turned out to be a great disappointment; it was little better than moorland, and there was no house ready for the farmer's reception. At the end of the long and dreary journey, therefore, "Andrew Fairbairn, with his wife and five children, had to take temporary refuge in a miserable hovel, very unlike the comfortable house which they had quitted at Kelso."*

For upwards of two years the Fairbairns struggled with this wild and rugged farm, and in 1801 gave it up, Andrew Fairbairn obtaining a situation as steward to Mackenzie of Allen-

* Smiles's *Industrial Biography.*

grange, with whom he stayed two years. In the days of toil and privation at Moy, the boys had not been sent to school, but had been kept at work on the farm or in the house. It devolved upon William to have to nurse his younger brother Peter, who was then a rather weakly child; and it was while employed in this domestic capacity that he invented his first labour-saving machine — a little waggon in which he used to wheel his brother about.

After leaving the service of Mackenzie of Allengrange, Andrew Fairbairn took his family to their old home at Kelso, and ventured southward alone, engaging himself to Sir William Ingleby, of Ripley, Yorkshire, as farm manager. Things did not go well at Ripley, however; and after a few months, Andrew Fairbairn left the baronet's service, and accepted the management of the Percy Main Colliery's farm, near Newcastle. His wife and family removed from Kelso and joined him, and the prospect seemed somewhat brighter for them. Peter was placed at school, and William was sent to work at the colliery; and in the midst of trials and hard ships the two lads learned those lessons of self-

reliance and independence which, as the years advanced, raised them to important positions. At sixteen William was articled to the owners of Percy Main as an engineer apprentice; and it was while serving in that capacity that he made the acquaintance of George Stephenson, at that time employed as brakesman at Willington Quay. These two young men, destined afterwards to become famous amongst English engineers, helped each other both in their work and their studies, and a bond of friendship was thus created between them which lasted through life.

Peter Fairbairn was not more fortunate than his brother in respect of educational instruction. At the age of eleven years he was sent to work at the colliery. This was in the year 1811. In the same year, William concluded his five years' apprenticeship, and went out into the world in search of fresh work and experience.

Sir William Fairbairn.

William Fairbairn was twenty-one years of age when he quitted the Percy Main Colliery. For a few weeks he remained in Newcastle

assisting in the erection of a sawmill. He then removed to Bedlington, where he found employment at an increased wage, and where he met Miss Mar, the young lady who five years later became his wife. After a six months' sojourn at Bedlington, however, he saw that his prospects as an engineer were not likely to be materially advanced unless he changed his sphere of action; so, bidding an affectionate adieu to Miss Mar, he started out, with little more than the traditional shilling in his pocket, bent upon courting Fortune in London. On December 11th, 1811, he and a fellow-adventurer shipped on board a Shields collier bound for the Thames, and a very rough time they had. They were the only passengers. The weather was so bad that the vessel was fourteen days in making the voyage, and when they anchored off Blackwall, the ship was in a very damaged condition. The captain, who had been drunk during the greater part of the voyage, made himself friendly with the young engineer, and the two went ashore together at Blackwall, with the avowed object of finding the Coal Exchange. Unfortunately, the captain was in such a state of mental confusion

that, instead of getting to the Coal Exchange, he drifted with his young friend into a Wapping public-house, where they remained until ten o'clock in the evening. On leaving this water-side hostelry the two lost each other. William Fairbairn now found himself alone by night in a quarter of the metropolis which, even at that day, did not bear a good reputation. He appealed to the first watchman he met to recommend him to a lodging, and was taken to a house in New Gravel Lane. That same night the house next to the one in which he had slept was the scene of a tragedy that sent a thrill of horror through the whole country, a tragedy which De Quincey, with matchless mastery of words, so powerfully depicted in one of his best-known essays. After this painful experience, William Fairbairn returned to the ship for his companion, and they started for the City in search of employment. The captain, it turned out, had been locked up in the watch-house all night.

Mr. Rennie, the well-known engineer, was at this time a large employer of labour; Waterloo Bridge was in progress, and many other important public works. To Mr. Rennie, therefore,

the two young men presented themselves, and he sent them to his foreman with the request that they should be employed. But the trade-unionists were the masters of the situation, and Mr. Rennie's recommendation was of no avail unless the unionists could be assured of the wisdom of employing the young men. Mr. Fairbairn, referring many years afterwards to this stage of his career, said, "I had no difficulty in finding employment; but before I could begin work I had to run the gauntlet of the trade-societies; and after dancing attendance for nearly six weeks, with very little money in my pocket, and having to 'box Harry' all the time, I was ultimately declared illegitimate, and sent adrift to seek my fortune elsewhere."

London had failed them; so, with light purses and heavy hearts, they set forth to tramp the country. It was winter-time, and the roads were heavy with slush and snow; but they walked bravely on, and after a journey of eight hours reached Hertford, a penny roll and a pint of ale each having constituted the whole of their fare. Tired as they were, and wet to the skin, they forthwith sought a millwright's shop, and

asked for employment. The master was unable to give them work; but pitying their condition offered Fairbairn half-a-crown, which was respectfully declined. The two now went and rested in the churchyard, and Fairbairn's comrade had a good cry, and complained bitterly of the rejection of the half-crown, seeing their destitute condition. "If the worst comes to the worst, we can 'list," said Fairbairn; and with this consolation they turned into the town, and sought out some humble lodgings.

Next morning they made further inquiry, and were advised to go to Cheshunt, where a millwright was erecting a windmill, and was said to be short of hands. On this job they were fortunate enough to obtain a fortnight's work, after which, with a united fund of three pounds, they returned to London.

On his second visit to London, William Fairbairn succeeded in obtaining employment. Grundy's Patent Ropery at Shadwell was the first place he worked at; after that he got engaged at Penn's large establishment at Greenwich, and occupied his leisure time in improving his knowledge and in making private experiments.

It was while here that he constructed a sausage-chopping machine for a pork-butcher, an invention which brought him 33*l.*, and which was successfully worked. Soon after this, Mr. Fairbairn fell out of employment, and again betook himself to the country, starting in April, 1813, with 7*l.* in his pocket, on an industrial tour through the southern and western counties and the coal and iron districts of South Wales. Arrived at Cardiff, and being still without prospect of work, he took ship for Dublin, which city he reached the possessor of three-halfpence. The day after landing, he obtained an engagement at the Phœnix Foundry, where for some months his inventive skill was exercised in the construction of nail-making machinery, which, however, was destined never to be used, the opposition of the Dublin unionists being powerful enough to prevent its being worked.

The young engineer now returned to England, and made his way to Manchester, where he settled down for the remainder of his life. For two years he worked for Mr. Adam Parkinson as a millwright, and by thrift and industry saved sufficient money to enable him to furnish a two

roomed cottage. When he had accomplished this, he asked the lady who five years before had won his heart to marry him; and in 1816 we find him and his young wife undertaking the duties of housekeeping in the little cottage before mentioned. Marriage spurred him on to more ambitious effort, and he began business on his own account, his first contract being for the erection of an iron conservatory. He now took Mr. James Lillie, a fellow workman, into partnership; but for a time they had an uphill struggle. In the first place, they received notice from a Birmingham firm that they would be proceeded against for infringement of patent if they went on with their project for building an iron conservatory on the principle intended. They therefore had to relinquish this first order, and look out for fresh ones. They hired a small shed at a rent of 12*s.* a week, and, setting up a lathe and engaging an Irishman to turn it, they felt themselves prepared to receive fresh orders. Success was slow in coming, and Lillie began to have gloomy forebodings. As a last resource it was resolved to try what could be done by personal solicitation amongst spin-

ners and manufacturers, and Mr. Fairbairn went round and interviewed many of them. This led to the young millwrights being engaged by Messrs. Murray, the cotton-spinners, "to renew with horizontal cross-shafts" the whole of the work by which their mule-spinning machinery was turned. Fairbairn and Lillie were almost frightened at the magnitude of this order; nevertheless they set steadily to work to execute it; and so well were their employers satisfied that Mr. Murray recommended the engineers to the firm of MacConnel & Kennedy, who then had the largest cotton-spinning concern in the country. Messrs. MacConnel & Kennedy were about this time erecting a large new mill, and they intrusted Messrs. Fairbairn & Lillie with the important task of supplying the necessary engineering work, gearing, &c. Improvements of a valuable character were introduced by Mr. Fairbairn, whereby the construction of the driving-shafts and their connections was greatly simplified and lightened, giving increased speed and additional security. The firm of Fairbairn & Lillie had now a prosperous career before them; their reputation

was made; orders came in faster than they could be executed; and larger premises and more extensive machinery had to be resorted to. Ten years after their start in business, Fairbairn & Lillie were amongst the foremost firms of mechanical engineers in the country. The improvements they effected had a wonderful influence on the development of our textile manufactures. Iron-work of every description came within the scope of Mr. Fairbairn's operations; his fame as a scientific mechanic extended far and near. His life was spent, indeed, in experiments connected with iron, and his numerous works on iron, engineering, and mill-work are of great value. He was one of the first to take up iron shipbuilding, and in 1835 he established large works at Millwall, where, in the course of some fourteen years, says Mr. Smiles, he built upwards of one hundred and twenty iron ships, some of them above 2,000 tons burden. His invention of the riveting machine, the part he took in working out the details of the tubular bridge across the Menai Straits, his connection with the British Association (first as one of the founders, and

subsequently as president), and his wonderfully lucid and practical lectures on mill-work and engineering, served to keep him for many years prominently before the public. Few men were more highly esteemed for probity of character and intellectual activity. For fifteen years—from 1816 to 1831—the firm of Fairbairn & Lillie was continued with great success. In the latter year Lillie retired, and thenceforth Mr. Fairbairn carried on the business, which he extended in many directions, on his own account, and amassed a large fortune. Some years afterwards, Mr. Fairbairn's eldest son, the present Sir Thomas Fairbairn, was taken into partnership; and more recently the extensive business has been carried on by a limited liability company, the founder of the concern retaining the leading position therein until his death. William Fairbairn's later years were rendered illustrious by the many well-deserved honours which were showered upon him. In October, 1869, he was created a baronet, and from the chief sovereigns of Europe he from time to time received those marks of respect and distinction which are reserved only for men of world-wide eminence. He was a

Chevalier of the Legion of Honour, a corresponding member of the National Institute of France, and of the Royal Academy of Turin. He died on August 18th, 1874, and retained his intellectual vigour to the last.

Sir Thomas Fairbairn, Bart.

The present possessor of the Fairbairn baronetcy was born at Manchester, in 1823. He was connected with his father in many of his most important undertakings, and rendered valuable aid in working out some of the great problems of mechanical science with which his firm had to grapple. Apart from this, Sir Thomas Fairbairn has also showed an individuality and a capacity which have won for him a distinct reputation. Art has always been an object of study and delight to him, his appreciation thereof having been fostered largely by a residence of some years in Italy. He has allied himself with several movements for the encouragement of art in England, and has strenuously advocated art-teaching in connection with our schools. He

was one of the commissioners for the Exhibition of 1851, and was chairman of the Manchester Art Treasures Exhibition of 1857, a scheme which he was greatly instrumental in promoting. Her Majesty offered him the honour of knighthood when she visited Manchester in 1857, but he declined the dignity. He was chosen a commissioner for the Great Exhibition of 1862, and sensibly assisted the success of the undertaking by his practical knowledge and refined appreciation of machinery and art. He has also employed much of his leisure time in discussing in the columns of the *Times* and elsewhere some of those knotty questions which are the means of bringing capital and labour into such frequent conflict. Trade-unionism, social progress, and kindred subjects have often formed the themes of well-written and ably-argued letters which Sir Thomas Fairbairn has contributed to the leading journal under the signature of "Amicus." In 1870, Sir Thomas Fairbairn was High-Sheriff of Hampshire, in which county he had a residence; and for his native county of Lancashire, as well as

for Hampshire, he is a magistrate and Deputy-Lieutenant.

Sir Peter Fairbairn.

We will now follow more closely the career of Peter Fairbairn. Peter continued to work at the colliery for three years, earning his bread in the best way he could, and devoting his spare time to the attainment of knowledge. At the age of fourteen he was apprenticed by his father to Mr. John Casson, a millwright and engineer at Newcastle, and the lad began to feel that his life had been directed to a worthy purpose. He gave his mind up steadily to the acquirement of a full knowledge of his trade, and was regarded by his shopmates as a successful and promising workman. Diligent, assiduous, and intelligent, possessing a strong affection for his work, and applying himself early and late to his duties, he made rapid strides in his profession, gaining the confidence and esteem of his employers, and, what is often most difficult of all to secure, the respect and goodwill of his fellow-

workmen. In his later years Sir Peter Fairbairn frequently referred with pride to his early experiences at Newcastle, when he used to trudge, willingly and cheerfully, morning and night, between the farmhouse at Percy Main and the millwright's shop in Newcastle; and the breakfast-can which he always carried with him on those journeys was preserved by him as a precious relic, and kept bright and clean in the kitchen of Woodsley House in the height of his prosperity.

Peter Fairbairn was fortunate enough to fall in with Mr. Holdsworth, a mechanic and maker of cotton machinery, of Glasgow, while with Mr. Casson; and Mr. Holdsworth being in want of a foreman, it was arranged that Peter should fill the vacancy. This was a period when the industrial arts were rapidly developing, and afforded good opportunities for really skilful and diligent men like Peter Fairbairn. Mr. Holdsworth saw that young Fairbairn was possessed of "grit" and energy, and it was not long before he promoted Peter to the post of traveller to the firm, in which duty he had to move about amongst the

principal towns in the United Kingdom, and occasionally had to make journeys to the Continent. The experience he thus gained was invaluable to him in after years. He was brought into contact with the leading mechanicians and manufacturers of the day, and was enabled to see, more clearly than he otherwise could, in what particular channels the tide of industrial progress was turning. This was the time when the country was just settling down to peaceful pursuits, after the long and arduous struggle on the battlefields of Europe against the power of Napoleon.

In the year 1821, Peter Fairbairn considered it to his advantage to quit the service of Mr. Holdsworth, so he engaged himself, in the now rapidly expanding business of his brother William, at Manchester. For a few months Peter worked as a journeyman in his brother's machine shop, gaining while there—short as his stay was—much useful experience. He then took it into his head to try his luck in London; and thither he accordingly went, and obtained an engagement with Mr. Rennie, the celebrated engineer, who was then in the height of his fame and in the last

year of his successful life. The many important government contracts which Mr. Rennie had then in hand, and upon which Peter Fairbairn was variously employed, must have brought the young millwright a considerable accession of knowledge. As yet, however, Peter Fairbairn was something of a "rolling stone;" his mind was active and restless, the object that was to focus it into settled directness of purpose was undiscovered. In 1822, therefore, we find him venturing to France in search of improvement, procuring employment first with Mr. Manby at Charenton, and subsequently with Messrs. Atkins and Steele, who were directors of an engineering concern situated near the present Pont d'Austerlitz. Peter Fairbairn remained about a year in France on this occasion, acquiring not only additional experience in his trade, but a fair knowledge of French industrial pursuits.

In 1823 he returned to England, and once more entered the service of his brother William at Manchester. Messrs. Fairbairn & Lillie were now in a large way of business. Peter Fairbairn held a position of responsibility in their works for about a year, at the end of which time the old

firm of Messrs. Holdsworth & Co. of Glasgow offered him a partnership, which he accepted, and in 1824 he once again settled down in the city on the Clyde. His first partnership, however, does not seem to have been altogether in accord with his desires; he found himself in a great measure restricted in his operations—in fact, his partners would not move fast enough for him. Their works were called the Anderston Foundry. For four years he struggled for success, and then, when he saw that his best efforts were likely to be frustrated by antagonistic influences, he quietly retired from such an unsatisfactory field of operation, and cast about for something more suitable. He felt that his period of "Wanderschaft" was passed, the "rolling-stone" stage of his existence had come to an end, and he longed to create a business of his own in some favourable locality. He consulted with his brother William as to what should be the next step in his industrial career, and the conclusion the two brothers came to was that the best thing for Peter to do would be to start business in Leeds as a machine-maker. This was therefore resolved upon; and in 1828 Peter Fairbairn, in the full strength of his man-

hood, with experience, skill, and energy as his sole capital and stock-in-trade, took up his abode in the town which henceforth to the end of his days was to be his home. The Glasgow partnership had left him in debt some 500*l.*, to discharge which his brother William lent him the money.

Leeds was at that time in the first flush of its manufacturing prosperity. More than thirty years before, another mechanical genius, Matthew Murray of Stockton, had entered Leeds in search of work, having travelled on foot from Stockton with a bundle on his back, without sufficient money when he landed to pay for a bed at the Bay Horse Inn, where he put up. Murray, first as a mechanic in the flax-manufacturing establishment of Mr. Marshall, and afterwards in partnership with Messrs. Fenton & Wood as engineers, may be said to have originated the Leeds machine-making trade. Leeds had been fully alive to the importance of Watt's great invention; and at the time when Messrs. Murray, Fenton & Wood's machine works were established at Holbeck (1795), there existed several factories for the spinning and weaving of flax, as well as for the performance of the several

processes connected with the woollen manufacture; and the Marshalls, the Gotts, the Wormalds, and others, who owned those factories, did much to promote the industrial advancement of Leeds in those early days of steam working. Arthur Young (the record of whose peregrinations at home and abroad it is so interesting to refer to at this distance of time) mentions that when he was at Leeds in 1796 there were six or seven steam-engines used in woollen mills, and one in a drying-house, and that the machines which had done so much for the cotton trade were being rapidly introduced into Leeds. Of the flax trade he does not appear to have taken any particular notice; he probably mixed it up in his mind with the woollen trade. In 1791 there had been a flax-mill built at Holbeck, one of Savery's steam-engines, in combination with a water-wheel, supplying the motive-power. In 1792 one of Boulton and Watt's steam-engines had been substituted, of twenty-eight horse-power, and in 1793 there were 900 flax-spindles at work. Matthew Murray had a great influence in extending the industrial prosperity of Leeds; he not only was the means of giving the machine trade a firm footing in the

town, but so improved the steam engine itself as to excite the jealousy and alarm of Boulton & Watt, who were driven to adopt the not very generous plan of buying up ground adjoining Murray & Co.'s works with the view of preventing their extension. Further than this, it was due to Murray that Leeds had the honour of being the first place where a locomotive was put into operation on any railway. Murray, in conjunction with Mr. Blenkinsop, had improved Trevethick's locomotive, and the people of Leeds were privileged to see this new machine dragging trains of coal-waggons between Leeds and the Middleton collieries, a distance of some three and a half miles, several years before George Stephenson had brought his experiments in this direction to a successful result.

The quarter of a century which preceded the period of Peter Fairbairn's settlement in Leeds had, indeed, seen a marvellous growth of industrial enterprise in the town. It was in Leeds that Girard, the French inventor of flax-spinning machinery, who had been unable to get his invention applied in his own country, succeeded in reaping the first reward of his ingenuity in 1816. Leeds was ready to help forward any

man of real inventive ability; Leeds, therefore, was the best place that a man of Peter Fairbairn's mechanical skill could have selected as a field of enterprise. It had suffered severely in many ways—from trade disturbances (engendered by unreasoning prejudice) and depressions (in which the whole country shared); but, in spite of all, had gone on steadily developing its commercial resources, being fully abreast with the march of inventive progress, and ready to avail itself of every aid to manufacture that ingenuity could devise. At the beginning of the century, Leeds had a population of 53,162 inhabitants; when Peter Fairbairn came into it, in 1828, the population had been at least doubled; while it has to-day a population of more than 300,000.

The part that the Fairbairns have played in helping forward this wonderful development is not difficult to trace. Peter Fairbairn looked around him thoughtfully and shrewdly before he decided upon the precise thing to do in Leeds. Stephenson's "Rocket" had still to be ushered before the public; and the great railway era, which was destined to change the aspect of

affairs so marvellously, had yet to dawn. But there was an ample field of labour open for him notwithstanding. Flax-spinning machinery had engaged a good deal of his attention, and he came to Leeds with an improvement which he was anxious to introduce into this class of machinery. He proposed to use eighty spindles instead of forty, and to substitute screws for the old "fallers" and "gills;" thus not only simplifying the process very much, but achieving a great saving of waste in the raw material. The improvement would also considerably increase the speed and power of production.

While revolving in his mind how he had best proceed in order to get his invention into proper notice, he came across a young Glasgow workman named John Anderson, whom he had known during his connection with Messrs. Holdsworth & Co., and he induced Anderson to join him in perfecting the machine. He took a small back room in Lady Lane; and in that circumscribed space—he working as designer, Anderson as modeller, and a stalwart Irishman named Barney Calvert as lathe-turner and "man about"—he set to work, with characteristic pluck and

energy, at the completion of his machine. Peter Fairbairn laboured hard, and lived with enforced frugality during this anxious time. He lodged at the Shoulder-of-Mutton Inn in Marsh Lane; and often, after the usual day's work had been done in the back workshop in Lady Lane, would sit up until three or four o'clock in the morning working at his treasured models.

At length he finished his model machine, and sought an introduction to Mr. Marshall, to whom he explained his various flax-spinning improvements. Mr. Marshall thought so favourably of the young engineer's invention, that he ordered him to begin the manufacture of the new machine forthwith, promising to replace his old machines with them as fast as they could be made. "It will be impossible for me to do that without assistance," said the inventor, frankly; "for I have neither workshop nor money." "Never mind that," said Mr. Marshall: "the Wellington Foundry at the New Road end is to let; go and take it at once—I'll see that you're all right."

Elated by this encouragement, Peter Fairbairn lost no time in following the advice given

by his new patron, and was soon installed, with his models and machines, in the Wellington Foundry, which at that time was but an extremely humble and unpretentious establishment. In this quiet way was founded the giant concern which to-day covers some seven or eight acres of ground, and finds employment for from 2,000 to 3,000 workpeople.

From the time of his entering upon the tenancy of the Wellington Foundry, Peter Fairbairn's progress was rapid in the extreme. For a while Barney Calvert had to go to Mr. Marshall's counting-house at the end of every week for the money wherewith to pay the wages of the handful of mechanics employed; but this condition of dependence did not endure long, the establishment prospered so well that the proprietor was soon in a position to run alone. Orders poured in upon Peter Fairbairn fast, and each new improvement that he introduced secured him an accession of customers. He applied himself to the making of woollen as well as of flax machinery, and was successful with both. He is generally credited with being the first to substitute iron for wood in the construction of

woollen machinery. It is not too much to say that by his achievements in the way of simplifying the mechanical processes in connection with the manufacture of flax, he gave great impetus to the trade, and was largely instrumental in preserving to Leeds its supremacy in this branch of the industrial arts.

While Peter Fairbairn was steadfastly employing his energy and skill in the perfecting of the machinery used in the Leeds manufactures, his fellow-workers in the field of mechanical invention were not less busy in their own special departments. It was a period of intense application and remarkable activity. The spirit of invention was manifesting its presence everywhere; never a year passed without the discovery of some important new force or development in mechanical appliances. But a few years before, Horrocks had perfected the power-loom; and at this time these new machines, whose introduction into the West Riding had led to riots and disturbances, were becoming firmly established. Jacquard had succeeded in getting his loom for weaving figured goods into use in England. Neilson had just invented the hotblast, which

Sir William Fairbairn described as having "effected an entire revolution in the iron industry of Great Britain." Clements had lately completed the invention of the planing machine, the germ of which may be said to have been discovered and put into practical use ten years before by Murray of Leeds. Three years previously Roberts had invented the self-acting mule, which was the means of working a signal improvement in cotton-spinning. And while all these men of genius were devoting their intellects and strength to the elucidation of the yet unrevealed mysteries of mechanical science, George Stephenson was giving his soul to the accomplishment of the mightiest task of all—the practical application of the principles of the locomotive. In 1829 the locomotive was an established fact, and the era of railways may be said to have been successfully inaugurated.

With all these agencies in active operation around him, with the ability to shape his own labours so as to harmonise therewith, and with a keen appreciation of mechanical inventions of every kind, it is not surprising that Peter Fairbairn should have succeeded in making his mark

upon the industrial progress of his time. It was not his good fortune to have his name associated with any one invention of such preëminent usefulness as to elevate his name into companionship with the names of our *greatest* inventors; nevertheless he possessed the true inventive genius, and as an improver of machines, if not as an originator, he attained well-deserved celebrity. He effected a very serviceable improvement in the roving frame; and he and Mr. Henry Holdsworth, working together, adapted what is known as the "differential motion" to that machine, thereby greatly extending its power and simplifying its action. He likewise worked the "screw gill," motion to the point of success, and introduced the "rotary gill," which has been proved to be of so much advantage in the manufacture of tow. The improvements thus effected were a great accession to the productive power of the Leeds flax and woollen machinery, and very materially reduced the cost of manipulation. He invented valuable machines for preparing and spinning silk-waste, and was successful in the introduction of improvements in machinery for the making of rope-yarn.

Meanwhile the metal trades of Leeds were ex-

panding in many ways. The facilities which the command of coal and iron afforded them were not neglected. There were the extensive ironworks known as Kirkstall Forge, almost under the shadow of Kirkstall's abbey-ruins; the Bowling and Low Moor Foundries; and the Farnley Ironworks, all ready to yield their metalliferous treasures up to the makers of machines. Foundries and machine-shops increased at a marvellous rate.

Mr. Kitson established the first foundry in Leeds for the making of locomotives in 1836. He had previously had some experience in constructing railway material at Hunslet; but in the year mentioned, in the lower room of an old cloth-mill, where a pair of woollen looms were in operation, he began to build his first locomotive. Much curiosity was evinced in Mr. Kitson's work, and he was joked upon the fact that there was no doorway large enough for the egress of the engine. This was but a small detail, however; and when the locomotive was finished Mr. Kitson broke down a portion of the wall, and the engine was soon put upon its travels out in the open country. Orders for more locomotives came in; and before

long the cloth-weavers were ejected from the mill, and Mr. Kitson entered into full possession of the building, and the Railway Foundry (which was subsequently merged in the larger Airedale Foundry) soon became one of the leading industrial establishments of the town. The Airedale Foundry of to-day comprises about ten acres of ground, and is capable of turning out about eighty locomotives every year. Mr. Kitson was a worthy pioneer; he opened up a new and profitable mechanical business to Leeds; and in the course of time others followed in his footsteps, and locomotive buildings became an important trade. Messrs. Manning, Wardle & Co. subsequently attained a position of eminence amongst Leeds locomotive makers: and the Monk Bridge Ironworks, carried on by Messrs. Frederick & James Kitson, sons of the originator of the Railway Foundry, supply large quantities of material for the construction of engines. In 1857 there were upwards of 4,000 persons engaged in Leeds in the manufacture of stationary and locomotive engines and railway material; and the last twenty years have considerably extended the productive capacity of these branches of industry. Messrs.

S. Lawson & Sons, Messrs. Tayler Brothers & Co., Messrs. Greenwood & Batley, and many others have all carried on important establishments in connection with machine or implement making; and latterly Messrs. Fowler & Co. have had extensive works in Leeds for the manufacture of steam-ploughs. In 1857, according to a paper read at the meeting of the British Association by Mr. James Kitson, there were about 11,000 hands employed in the iron trades in Leeds; and in 1871 (as stated in a parliamentary return obtained by Mr. Edward Baines, and referred to in Baines's *Yorkshire, Past and Present)* there were 15,000 persons employed in metal works in Leeds, of whom between 8,000 and 9,000 were engaged in iron mills, foundries and machine-shops. There were also between 600 and 700 persons engaged in the manufacture of nails and in brass-finishing, and 6,629 in "miscellaneous" articles of metal. Thus, from those small beginnings which we have noted in the time when Matthew Murray started his career in Leeds—beginnings which were materially helped forward by the mechanical skill, business sagacity, and untiring energy of Peter Fairbairn—there grew up a wealthy and influen-

tial industry which has made the fortunes of many and been one of the main sources of the town's prosperity in modern times.

Peter Fairbairn continued for several years to devote himself to the making of flax and woollen machinery; but as time wore on he began to turn his attention more to the art of constructing engineering tools, and of late years Wellington Foundry has been very largely employed in this branch of machine making. On the breaking out of the Crimean war, his firm were requested by the Government to construct certain special tools to be used in the manufacture of implements of war; and since that time the Wellington Foundry has always been more or less engaged in turning out heavy work of this description. In the gun factories of Woolwich and Enfield may be seen in operation a variety of huge machines for cutting, twisting, boring, and tearing iron and steel, many of which machines are supplied by this firm. Machines for the manipulation of textiles are often very large; but machines for making machines are Brobdingnagian in comparison. Cannon-rifling machines, milling machines, boring machines, planing machines, and slotting machines

are amongst the formidable mechanical contrivances which the Fairbairns have now occupied themselves in constructing for many years; and a walk through their foundry of eight acres is enough to suggest to the uninitiated the age of mammoths, so forcibly do the machines seem to typify the strength, size, and power of things gigantic.

Having thus indicated the course of Peter Fairbairn's business life, we may briefly refer to the events which have marked his public and social career.

Peter Fairbairn, much as he loved business, did not believe in giving up his existence to it wholly; he had a deep sense of the responsibilities and duties of citizenship, and was adapted by nature and disposition for the enjoyments of social life. He was a genial companion and a most hearty laugher. No one was more inclined to hospitality, and no one had a better appreciation of a good story. Moreover, he was a man of strong individuality; he held the most decided opinions and convictions, and never hesitated to let people know what they were. The great feature of his character was his indomitable perseverance. Having once made up his mind to master or do anything, he never rested

until he had attained his end. This tenacity of purpose he carried with him into every undertaking of his life and was as firm of resolve in carrying out his public labours as in prosecuting his personal business enterprises. His sympathies were broad, however, and his judgment well balanced; so that he was rarely found bringing his strong spirit of determination to bear on the side of unfairness. His relations with his workpeople were of the most satisfactory description. During the fifty years which have elapsed since Peter Fairbairn took the Wellington Foundry, there have only been two strikes there; one occurred in 1833, and the other in 1871, some years after Sir Peter's death. When the strike of 1833 took place, trade was in a critical condition. Mr. Fairbairn took up what he considered to be a just position, and from that standpoint he resolutely declined to recede. The men were as obstinate on their side, and the result was that the employer engaged a number of untrained hands, and set diligently to work to teach them the trade. This caused a great dissatisfaction amongst the old hands, and they indulged in some revengeful outbursts, more than once attacking Mr. Fairbairn's

house, which was then in Blundell Place, a row of houses immediately behind the New Infirmary. On one occasion the assailants broke the dining-room window to atoms, and a gun or pistol was fired into the house, the bullet passing between the present Sir Andrew Fairbairn and his elder sister, then but very young children, who were standing together in the room. Peter Fairbairn carried his point, however, and this was the only trade dispute in which he was engaged during the whole of his business career.

In 1827 he was married to Margaret, daughter of Mr. Robert Kennedy of Glasgow. One son and two daughters were the result of that marriage.

The Municipal Corporations Act of 1835 greatly enlarged the corporate system in Leeds, and in the following year Peter Fairbairn was elected to represent the West Ward of the borough in the augmented Town Council. He continued to hold a seat in the municipal body until 1842, when the demands made upon him by his rapidly increasing business were so great that he resigned his office, paying the fine of 50*l*. In 1854 he was again prevailed upon to take part in

municipal work, and was elected an alderman. From that time up to within a short period of his death he occupied a prominent position in the public mind of Leeds. He was appointed to the magistracy, and in 1857 was elected mayor, filling the post to the honour of the town and with credit to himself. It may be considered a handsome tribute to his worth and a strong mark of public esteem that he was elected to fill the mayoral office during the most distinguished year in the modern history of the town. It was while Peter Fairbairn was Mayor that Her Majesty the Queen and the late Prince Consort visited Leeds, for the purpose of opening the town hall; and it was during the same year that the British Association held its meeting in Leeds. He did the honours of his high office nobly, his large-heartedness and public spirit doing much to accelerate the progress of the woollen metropolis. On the completion of the town hall he presented for its adornment, at a cost of 1,000*l.*, a marble statue of the Queen, Mr. Noble being the sculptor. How royally the Queen and her illustrious consort, and the two Princesses who accompanied them, were entertained by the mayor is now a matter of history. He placed his

mansion—Woodsley House—at the disposal of the royal party, and the distinguished guests resided there during their brief sojourn in Leeds in September, 1858, the late Lord Derby being the minister in attendance. The *éclat* which attended the ceremonial of opening the town hall was contributed to with princely munificence by the mayor; and it is not too much to say that his exertions during the two years that he filled the office of chief magistrate gave a prestige to the town which it had never previously enjoyed. The dignity of knighthood, which was conferred upon him by his sovereign, had been well earned, and was for the rest of his life honourably upheld. After the inauguration of the town hall, Sir Peter gave a banquet to the leading noblemen and gentlemen of the county, and through his influence the commercial and landed interests of the district were brought into closer union than they had ever been before. Sir Peter was a generous supporter of the arts and sciences, and the numerous local institutions for the promotion of knowledge had always in him a valuable patron. He was president of the Yorkshire Choral Union, and evinced a good deal of interest both in music and drama.

The esteem in which he was held by his fellow-townsmen has been shown in many ways, but most notably perhaps by their subscribing the cost of a portrait of Sir Peter for the council-chamber of the town hall—which portrait was painted by the late Sir Francis Grant, P.R.A.,—and by the erection, by public subscription, subsequently of a bronze statue of Sir Peter, the commission being executed by Mr. Noble.

Sir Peter Fairbairn retired from municipal life at the end of the second year of his mayoralty, in 1859; but up to the time of his death, which occurred on January 4th, 1861, he continued to take an active interest in the affairs of the town. He was buried on the 9th of the same month, in the family vault at Adel Church, an impressive public funeral being given to him. It only remains to be stated that Sir Peter's first wife by whom he had the three children who survived him, died in 1843, and that in 1855 he was married to the lady who is now his widow, Rachel Anne, fourth daughter of the late R. W. Brandling. With this, the life story of Sir Peter Fairbairn may be regarded as complete.

In Sir Peter Fairbairn was combined the skill

of the inventor with the tact and energy of the man of business, and with such a field of enterprise as Leeds opened to him, it is not to be wondered at that he succeeded in building up a great fortune, and establishing one of the largest industrial concerns in the North of England. He was quick of perception and clear-headed to a degree, and many a time could ill restrain his impatience when customers would expatiate on mechanical matters of which they were comparatively ignorant. Foreign spinners, especially Frenchmen, used to irritate him very much. They would for ever be theorising and suggesting improvements, when all the time they knew next to nothing of the real principles upon which the machines were worked. He mentioned this failing of foreigners once to one of his English friends in Belgium, and complained bitterly of the waste of time involved in discussing their crude ideas. "Oh, you must let them have their palaver," was the reply; "and when they have had their say, you'll easily set them right." A pleasant feature in Sir Peter's character was once brought out by an incident which oc-

curred on a steamer on one of the American lakes, while he was travelling in the United States. Frederick Douglass, the negro anti-slavery orator, whom Sir Peter had met in England, was said to be on board; so the engineer went in search of him, and found that the negro had been banished from the saloon, and compelled to take up his quarters in the barber's shop. Sir Peter protested to the steamboat authorities against this inhuman treatment of "a man and a brother;" but his appeals were of no avail. He took his revenge by turning his back upon the representatives of Yankee snobbery in the saloon, and betook himself to the barber's shop; and as long as he remained on the steamer (a period of several hours) he was the friend and companion of the ostracised negro.

On Sir Peter Fairbairn's death, Sir C. B. Phipps wrote to Mr. (now Sir Andrew) Fairbairn, on behalf of the Queen and the Prince Consort, assuring him of the regret with which Her Majesty and His Royal Highness had heard of the decease of so excellent a man, and Sir Charles added, "I had, I am happy to say,

seen a good deal of your poor father, and it was impossible to be thrown into his society without respecting and valuing the sterling qualities of his truly English character."

Sir Andrew Fairbairn.

It will be interesting at this point to say something of the gentleman who is now at the head of the business which was so successfully established by Sir Peter Fairbairn.

Sir Andrew Fairbairn, Sir Peter's only son, was born at Anderston, Glasgow, on March 5th, 1828, in a house overlooking the Clyde. When he was about five months old, his parents, as we have seen, removed to Leeds; and by the time the child was well out of his nurse's care, the Wellington foundry had become a flourishing engineering concern, and it was evident that the son's early years would be passed free from such struggles and privations as had been the lot of the father during his juvenile days.

The Fairbairns had, for their first settled place of residence in Leeds, a small house in

Cardigan Place, close to where the North-Eastern Railway viaduct now stands, and it was there that Sir Andrew's elder sister, Elizabeth, was born. The family removed to Blundell Place in 1833, and Sir Andrew's second sister was born there in the same year.

Sir Andrew was first sent to a small school kept by a Miss Hartley, who lived in a house near St. George's Church. Thence he was removed to Mr. Duncan's school in St. James's Street, where the training was efficient if somewhat severe, the "ruler" being a rather powerful corrective in Mr. Duncan's hands. The family about this time removed to 11, Park Square, the prosperity of the business at the New Road end more than justifying the improved place of residence.

In the spring of 1837, Sir Andrew, then only nine years of age, accompanied his mother and aunt abroad, on a visit to his uncle, Mr. Peter Kennedy, who had a mill at Feldkirch, Vorarelberg, in the Tyrol. They took his uncle's house at Manchester by the way, and thence travelled by coach to London, where they took steamer for Rotterdam. The im-

pressions received on this first journey to a foreign country were such as to inspire the lad with a strong liking for continental life. The voyage up the Rhine was a thing never to be forgotten; it awakened the boy's mind to the beauties of Nature and the attractions of poetry and romance. At length, however, they reached their destination, which was not far from Lake Constance; and in this picturesque retreat, so different from all his past experience, young Andrew Fairbairn passed the whole of the summer, acquiring, during his stay, a smattering of the *patois* of the district. In the autumn, however, he was taken by his mother and uncle to Geneva, and left in charge of Professor Rodolphe Töpffer, who kept a *pension* on the Place St. Antoine. The house looked out on the Salève Mountains, and at the end of the promenade, which was the playground, there was then a beautiful view of the lake. A more attractive place for the uninterrupted pursuit of scholastic studies, and the enjoyment of heathful recreation, it would have been difficult to have found. They had few holidays —a day at Christmas, two days at the be-

ginning of the year, a half-holiday at Easter and a whole holiday on Ascension Day, were the only times of relaxation allowed, except during the months of August and September, when all the pupils—or as many as did not go home for the vacation—took journeys on foot through different parts of Switzerland. These tours extended over from three to six weeks. Andrew Fairbairn's first experience of this kind was made in 1838, and he found it rather difficult work keeping up with the more practised pedestrians. They walked generally about twenty miles a day, and once, when they lost their way, they did considerably over thirty miles. For a boy of ten this was a long distance. The exercise, however, was a great advantage to him, and he had every reason in after years to be grateful to Professor Töpffer that a careful physical training formed part of his educational system.

Mr. Töpffer was originally intended for an artist; but his eye-sight failing him, he eventually settled down as Professor of Rhetoric and Belles Lettres at the University at Geneva. He was a brilliant sketcher and a well-known

writer. He published an account of the yearly travels of his pupils, with illustrations by himself; and these have since been republished, and are appreciated all over the world, as *Les Voyages en Zigzag*. Andrew Fairbairn, who remained with Mr. Töpffer for five years, accompanied the Professor on four of his "voyages en zigzag"—in 1838, 1840, 1841, and 1842, going, in the latter year, from Geneva to Venice and back. While Andrew Fairbairn stayed at Geneva, the city was threatened by Louis Philippe for giving shelter to Louis Napoleon. Geneva prepared for war, and the scholars at Mr. Töpffer's *pension* anxiously awaited the coming of the French troops, feeling sure of a holiday as soon as the attack commenced. Eventually, however, the "little war" was avoided, although matters had gone so far as to induce the Professor to hire a place of refuge away on the mountain-side, to fly to in case of necessity.

In 1839 Sir Andrew Fairbairn, while on his holidays in England, laid the foundation-stone of Woodsley House, and when he returned home in 1842 the mansion was completed and

occupied. He was now sent to the High School at Glasgow, and lived with a Mr. d'Orsey, first at Patrick, and then in Bath Street, Glasgow. After being a couple of years at the High School, he attended lectures at Glasgow College, under Professors Ramsay, Lushington, and others. In the spring of 1846 he removed to Huntingdon to prepare for Cambridge. His tutor was the Rev. C. Ebden. In October, 1846, he began to reside at Christ's College, Cambridge; but finding that he was disqualified from trying for anything on account of his Scotch birth and parentage, he migrated to Peterhouse in January, 1847. He eventually graduated in 1850, having amongst his contemporaries in the same year Mr. Childers and Mr. F. S. Powell, late M.P. for the Northern Division of the West Riding. He came out as 37th wrangler, and in 1853 took the degree of M.A.

On leaving Cambridge in 1850, Sir Andrew Fairbairn entered himself a student of the Inner Temple. He read for a year with Mr. Davidson, the conveyancer, and afterwards with Mr. Kemplay, now Q.C. In 1852 he was called to the Bar, and joined the West Riding Sessions

and Northern Circuit. Ceasing to practise in 1855, he made a short trip to America, visiting some of the principal cities of the States. He remained some time at Boston, and while there paid several visits to Harvard University, on one occasion being called upon to respond for Cambridge at the Harvard Commemoration dinner. In 1856 he went to Hanover, where he spent the winter studying German, and in the following year returned to Leeds and took to business.

Possessing the family instinct for industrial pursuits, he entered very heartily into the work which his father committed to his charge, and soon proved a valuable aid to the extension of the firm's connections. His educational training and knowledge of the world gave him considerable advantage in his subsequent dealings with spinners and manufacturers abroad, and year by year the productive capacity of the Wellington Foundry had to be enlarged. Sir Peter Fairbairn despatched his son in the first instance to Germany, where the firm had already many business friends; and Sir Andrew travelled over a great part of Bohemia,

Moravia, Silesia, and Prussia, acquiring, as he went on, a close acquaintance with the practical working of the flax mills of Germany. He subsequently made similar journeys to France, Belgium, Switzerland, and Italy, and in the two latter countries obtained an insight into the waste-silk spinning trade. In 1858 Sir Andrew made a business tour to Russia, going from Grimsby to Cronstadt; and after visiting Moscow, Narva, and other centres of trade, returned to England by way of Warsaw and Vienna.

In the intervals between these extended business tours Sir Andrew Fairbairn applied himself assiduously to the acquirement of a knowledge of the various branches of mechanical engineering, and in 1860 his father took him into partnership. In 1861 Sir Peter died, and Sir Andrew carried on the business alone until 1863, in which year he took into partnership his cousin, Mr. T. S. Kennedy, and Mr. J. W. Naylor, who had been in the works since he was a boy of fourteen or fifteen, and had risen through all the grades of the business. The firm has since then continued

as Fairbairn, Kennedy & Naylor, and the operations of the concern have increased even at a greater rate than in the time of the original founder.

In 1875 there were 2,400 work-people employed at the Wellington Foundry; at Sir Peter Fairbairn's death in 1861 the number of hands engaged would be about a thousand. The work of mechanical invention has been diligently carried forward by Sir Peter Fairbairn's successors, who were amongst the most prominent of English exhibitors of machinery at the last Paris Exhibition, and were awarded a gold medal. The firm exhibited a system of flax-spinning machinery, comprising a double hackling machine, a combing machine, spreader, drawings, roving, and spinning frames. The hackling machine was peculiar, having a self-acting motion, by which the flax in passing through the first machine was partially combed. In the process of passing from the first to the second machine, the clamp holding the flax was automatically loosened, the flax which was between the clamp was freed, and the clamp turned, so that the portion of

flax which had been on the top in the first machine and that which had been under the clamp were both combed by the second machine, or rather by the second half of the machine. These machines, which are very beautiful in construction, naturally attracted a good deal of attention while in the Exhibition.

We must now make some reference to the public life of the present head of this great engineering establishment. Sir Andrew Fairbairn has engaged more actively even than his father in the public affairs of Leeds, and has in many ways shown an earnest desire to assist his fellow-townsmen in promoting the welfare of the people.

In 1866, having previously been made an alderman of the borough, Sir Andrew Fairbairn was elected mayor, and so efficiently did he perform the civic duties that he was unanimously reëlected in the ensuing year. The second year of his mayoral term proved to be an eventful one. In May, 1868, a National Exhibition of Works of Art, on a very extensive scale, was to be opened in the New Infirmary, which had been built by

Sir Gilbert Scott; and on that occasion Leeds was once more to be honoured by a royal visit. The Prince of Wales accepted the mayor's invitation to open the exhibition; and on May 19th His Royal Highness entered Leeds from Templenewsam (where he had stayed the previous night), and officiated at the important ceremonial of inauguration. During the ten years that had elapsed since the visit of Her Majesty, Leeds had increased its population by 40,000. The mayor did the honours of the occasion to everybody's satisfaction, and in the month of August of the same year he received from the Queen a patent of knighthood.

About this time Sir Andrew Fairbairn began to turn his attention to political matters more closely than he had hitherto done, and was induced to resign the office of mayor and offer himself as a candidate for the representation of Leeds. He came out as an independent Liberal candidate, the other candidates being Mr. Edward Baines, Mr. Carter, Admiral Duncombe, and Mr. Wheelhouse. At the polling-day, however, Sir Andrew was unsuccessful.

On the formation of the Leeds School Board in 1870, Sir Andrew Fairbairn was elected its first chairman, to which post he was twice reëlected, continuing in office until May, 1878, when he resigned his seat on the board in consequence of having disagreed with the majority of the members on a question of expenditure, which Sir Andrew held to be excessive. In 1874, at the general election, Sir Andrew offered himself as a candidate for the representation of Knaresborough; but he was defeated by Mr. Basil T. Woodd. In 1876 Leeds had to find a successor to Mr. Carter, M.P., who resigned his seat, and Sir Andrew's name was once more brought forward; but ultimately he withdrew from the candidature rather than divide his party. His turn came in 1880, however, when he was elected for the Eastern Division of the West Riding, which constituency he still represents.

In 1877 Sir Andrew was appointed a member of the Royal Commission for the Paris Exhibition; and in watching after the special interests of Leeds, and securing as far as possible the efficient representation of its machinery and manufactures, displayed great zeal and energy. He was

appointed to the Engineering and Agricultural Committee, presided over by the Duke of Sutherland; and resided in Paris from the end of March to the end of June, 1878, working hard in the Exhibition, and being present at all the official *fêtes* and ceremonies. More than once Sir Andrew was invited to the French Foreign Office, presided over at that time by M. Waddington. The first time he had seen the Minister was, years before, when the latter was preparing to row with the Cambridge team in the University Boat-race on the Thames; the next time was when M. Waddington was the Foreign Minister of France.

It is in the industrial annals of this country, however, that the achievements of the Fairbairns will be principally remembered, although in regard to public honours they have, as we have seen, also been highly fortuuate. It may be mentioned of Sir Andrew that, in addition to the various offices already alluded to as having been filled by him, he has been a major of the Leeds Rifle Corps, having began duty as full private, and figured in the "awkward squad" in company with the late Mr. George Beecroft, M.P. for Leeds. He was also a captain in the Yorkshire Hussars,

but retired in 1877, being allowed to retain the rank, and having permission given to wear the uniform of the regiment; and is on the Commission of the Peace for the West Riding and for Leeds. He was appointed a director of the Great Northern Railway Company in 1878. In 1862 Sir Andrew married Clara Frederica, daughter of Sir John Lambton Loraine, Bart.

The productive power of the various foundries and machine shops in Leeds is now greater than ever. It is marvellous to observe to what a position the iron industries of Leeds have risen in such a short space of time, yielding large and rapid fortunes to the leading men engaged in them, and almost elbowing the staple trade of the town into a condition of secondary importance. It is one of the traditions of the district that ironworks existed in Leeds and the neighbourhood in the time of the Roman occupation, and the monks of Kirkstall are credited with having added iron-working to their other pursuits; but it was not until the Murrays, the Fairbairns, the Kitsons, and other artificers in iron entered upon the scene that Leeds came properly under the rule of Vulcan. These men not only enriched them-

selves, but enriched the town, developing to the general profit of the community the valuable mineral resources of the district, and giving the world the advantage of their many mechanical discoveries. It was never dreamed at the beginning of the present century that such a possibility of development existed within the boundaries of Ralph Thoresby's native town. The great industrial activity and immense resources of the district are in wonderful contrast to the picture which could be drawn of the condition of things half a century ago ; and whether England is destined to retain its industrial preëminence or not, the history of the men who were mainly instrumental in building up the nation's industrial greatness will always remain amongst the most attractive and most instructive evidences of a progress that is as yet probably the mightiest achievement of human effort.

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W. H. PERKIN, F.R.S

THE REVOLUTIONS OF INDUSTRY: W. H. PERKIN, F.R.S.

HISTORY, not so irrationally as some think, is the history of war and revolution. Even the slow but decided movements of policy strike the mind less than the incidents of some well-known battle. Waterloo, to most men, whether they read or not, is a great volume of history. There, in that last conflict between Napoleon and Wellington, even the thousands of combatants are lost sight of beside the two striking figures of the victor and the conquered. All is concentrated into the struggle between the two men. We have not far to seek for a cause of what is truly natural, and which touches the feelings of mankind. Of the tens of thousands who fought, we do not and cannot know the names. Were one of them a kinsman of ours, then we should know the battle in his

name; but for men whom we cannot embody we can conceive no deep emotion. It is not from want of fellow-feeling that our thoughts turn, whether we will or not, to those whose names make Waterloo, for each of these fills out a story. It is not only the Napoleon who fought and lost at Waterloo, but we see all in one and quickly the great Emperor of the West, who bore down the freedom of mankind, and threatened ours—he who after died an exile, imprisoned, entombed, in our island of St. Helena. We well know him in his dress as much by his cocked-hat as by anything, figure familiar to the world. So too the victor, who lived long, almost to this day. These men have pictures, statues, monuments; but the brave warrior who poured out his blood to death sleeps with his fellows under the rank turf or the oft turned furrows of the cornfield.

A debate, a law, which to this day touches the fortunes of every one of us, is taken like the wind and weather almost without thought, and with about as little knowledge of how it began and has been worked out. Indeed the impersonal affects our minds but little; and

yet when we can be brought to look at some of these studies they are as strange and as eventful as many a fight and many a campaign.

A song—what is lighter than that? There is a song, one hardly knows who wrote it or who composed it, and when we are told a name we have as small a notion of the man as when we knew not his name. The "Marseillaise," that heightened the horrors of one revolution, and which its charms of song never soothed, made ready the way for that of 1830. Forbidden, it was sought for more, and it was a greater enemy of the third Napoleon than any conspirator. If the Republic lives long it may become its triumph-song; but as yet the "Marseillaise" heightens the discords of every wild reactionary movement. In all the literature of music and song there is none like this—so married to the sword and to the dagger.

The dead long entombed may leave words to move our feelings—words we can understand and take into our minds. Such, of those who live beyond the tomb, is the spell of Shakespeare. His school has been driven off the stage and small men fill his parts, it may be in a foreign

accent or in a foreign tongue. Even to read his words is, nevertheless, enough to enthral men's fancies. There is no tie binds new England so strongly to the old, and joins the two great halves of English kindred, as does the spell of Shakespeare, and in Germany it is making ready the way for a new league of the Germanic races.

All this is, however, so fully human; but where a subtle influence, nameless, almost unknown, penetrates into our homes, and changes the settled customs of a hundred years, or it may be gives a new purpose to that of yesterday, it is a marvel like the earthquake or hurricane, although it is so quiet and so still in its approach. The fashion that came in but yesterday, and yet to-day is doomed—some folly as we call it that is laughed at, some trifle of which no one knows the beginner—may bring a thousand artizans to want, and settle penury in many a pleasant home. Whether women wear glass or steel, ribbons, feathers, or flowers, will in all days, but most in these times of swift travel, act even on the savage in his wilderness.

The doom of the slave-trade has so stimulated ivory-hunting, that elephants are already driven

away from vast regions. The want of real ivory creates a demand for the imitations, and the ivory-nut has been gathered by ship-loads from many a desert shore, until the overstocked market stops the trade. Ostrich feathers were ever rare, and were a privilege of the wealthiest; but the farming of tame ostriches gives such a crop, that the girls in the streets of every English town have such feathers in their hats.

Thus one perpetual revolution of industry is taking place, sometimes put down to the freaks of fashion—cotton buttons for steel, bugles for feathers—but more often the result of the theories of the philosopher in his closet turned to practical account by men of business.

The substitution of a mineral dye for a vegetable dye, of a dye dug out of the bowels of the earth for that of a flower grown under the sky in the open fields, was the result of the union of two series of investigations instituted with no reference to the definite end we have under consideration. It was natural that chemists should occupy themselves with ascertaining the physical constitution of the colouring substances of madder. These experiments occupied many men, and it should

be observed that the results were at first confined in their influence to publication in purely professional journals as matters of scientific interest.

Another course of experiment which engaged chemists was the examination of hydrocarbons and allied substances—in general terms the products and combinations of coal. If we consider that coal for some purposes, as for lighting, exhibits the properties of animal and vegetable materials, say tallow and colza oil, we can understand broadly the nature of the alliance which exists between mineral or inorganic bodies, and organic bodies. This study has been a distinguishing feature in our modern chemistry, leading to most remarkable and practical results, and affording great encouragement to pure scientific research.

It has appeared extraordinary to some that the perfumes, flavours, and colours of flowers and plants should be imitated and simulated and extracted from the most filthy sources, and it may be said that the results are not equally pleasing. No lady now knows what is the scent she puts on a handkerchief, or applies as

a relief to suffering. No man can tell what horrible constituent of Hamburg obliquity distinguishes the contents of the bottle with the pretentious capsule and brand. No poor woman has assurance of what replaces butter in the article under that name for which she has paid more than the full price. These are disagreeable methods of learning the unity of matter, and the many resources which Nature possesses when her secrets are made known.

Messrs. Graebe & Liebermann were among the first who conceived the idea of a common constitution for the madder colours and for coal products. It followed that if they could establish this, one set of elements could be substituted for the other. Graebe commenced some researches in quinone, a body allied to benzone, and, afterwards, in conjunction with Liebermann, turned his attention to the alizarine of madder. They found the exact relation of alizarine in the hydrocarbon anthracene, which is contained in coal-tar.

As happens in such cases, the minds of others were turned in the same way, and many discoveries were made; but Graebe and Liebermann

definitely applied themselves to the production of artificial alizarine, and in 1866 took out a patent, but it proved of no practical value. By this time the attention of Mr. Wm. Henry Perkin was called to the matter. He was a student of chemistry and the son of a manufacturer, and after a long course of experiments he succeeded in obtaining a process by which the desired substance could be produced. So early as 1868 he was able to bring his results before the Society of Arts, and he has since steadily pursued his researches—having published a number of papers recording his own progress, and, what is of particular value to the scientific world, his failures. He has thus very greatly contributed to the advancement of this new and now important branch of industry. While his inventions have brought wealth to him and his family, he has by his application to pure and applied chemistry rendered very great services to the scientific world, which are duly appreciated. Many have laboured in this field, and various claims are put forward; but the discoveries and investigations of Mr. Perkin have put England in the foremost rank with Germany and France.

Having made his discoveries, Mr. Perkin proceeded to turn them to practical account. Fortunately for chemists, they are associated with manufacturers in their pursuits, and become men of business, instead of being helpless schoolmasters and scholars, as in some branches of science. While others are dependent on professional salaries, chemists have made large fortunes by patents or manufactures. Every man knows that by some judicious observation or careful research he may become acquainted with a property of matter which may lead to important results and produce great wealth. Thus he is under the double stimulus of fortune and fame, and an immense amount of unseen labour is gone through, sifting through and over again the cinder-heaps of science, very often without any happy ending. What has been made of refuse products alone is something wonderful to contemplate. Whole branches of industry depend for their material on the waste of others. In many cases not a grain of substance is lost. Thus the goldsmith's filings and sweepings are reproduced as metal, and the diamond-cutter's dust is made available for fresh operations.

Mr. Perkin was fortunate in being associated with his brother, Mr. T. D. Perkin, who took charge of the business department. They set up works in 1857, not quite thirty years ago, at Greenford Green, near Harrow, and on the Grand Junction Canal. These works were at first employed on the mauve dye, but afterwards were also used for the production of various other coal-tar colours. For these latter purposes from time to time some of the older plant, no longer applicable, was made available for new experiment or production.

It was not till 1869 that their manufacturing experiments for the production of artificial alizarine were commenced. The first question was as to the production of the raw material, the substance which men of science had entitled "anthracene," and the history of how it was dealt with is not without interest. At that period anthracene was unknown in the large trade of the tar-distillers, and was a scientific curiosity, not a commercial product. Experiments had, therefore, to be made upon its preparation, not only to obtain it, but also to get some rough idea of the amount that could

be produced from coal-tar, as, unless it could be got in quantity, artificial alizarine could not successfully compete with madder. In his experimental researches in 1855 Mr. Perkin had employed coal-tar pitch, and distilled it in iron pots. He therefore naturally selected pitch as his first source of anthracene; and having a number of iron retorts ready for use on the works, many tons were distilled. This resulted in a sufficient quantity of anthracene to give the firm confidence of a supply; and yet this quantity was one per cent—a bare one in a hundred—of the pitch distilled. The anthracene, however, was a more valuable product than the pitch; and the mauve dye was in still smaller quantity than the anthracene, and of a far higher price, yet it was the ultimate product of the residual or refuse matter of gas-works. Tons of coal had been converted into gas as a primary manufacture, and the mauve dyes were only a few pounds.

Having found that the last runnings of the tar-stills were richer than the first, Messrs. Perkin asked Messrs. Blott of Poplar, the large tar-distillers, to collect the last runnings. These

were set aside to cool, and deposited considerable quantities of anthracene, which was collected in canvas bags; and it was found by this means that anthracene could be obtained on a large scale. Thus a new manufacture was established; for Messrs. Blott commenced to prepare this substance in quantity, so as to supply the Greenford Works. Other tar-distillers were then communicated with in England, and so much anthracene was obtained that it became unnecessary to distil pitch.

On receiving their new product Messrs. Perkin pressed it in hydraulic presses, so as to bring it into solid cakes of only one-fourth of the bulk. In time the manufacturers have come to compress their anthracene before sending it into the market, thereby largely reducing the freight, fitting it for being better handled, and enabling it to be transported to a greater distance. Indeed, a ball once set rolling in the industrial world, there is no telling how far it may roll, and we get a regular history of a house that Jack built connected with small causes.

The mauve manufacture was one continuous series of experiments and successive improve-

ments in the purification and preparation. Sometimes a good process proved injurious to the apparatus; sometimes an imperfection in the manufacture served as a substitute for some expedient. Residues were burnt in order to recover the potash temporarily used, and so to employ it again. Experience provided a succession of expedients, as is found in the life of all such manufacturers. Messrs. Perkin found it necessary to prepare their own chlorine, so as to obtain a more rapid production for the market of their material.

A very curious trouble to the manufacturers in making anthraquinone has been the large amount of chrome alum liquors produced. These are of a dark-green colour and acid character, and if turned into the sewers they soon give warning to the inspectors, while very little chrome alum can be sold as a colour, because it is of very limited consumption. Now the stuff is being reworked up into a chromate; but if it were not for the sanitary authorities it would have gone into waste. Another substance wasted on a large scale is sulphuric acid, of which 3,000 tons are dissipated, which might be saved.

As sulphuric acid was largely used, a great destruction of the iron vessels took place, the sulphuric acid itself being kept in glass carboys, a very dangerous expedient, and which has been the cause of many accidents. There is a story of the last century of a fire taking place in a carrier's cart in the streets of London, through the bursting of a bottle of vitriol, which destroyed silk, lace, and other goods to the value of 5,000*l*. The German manufacturers having latterly employed fuming sulphuric acid, a very strong acid has been prepared, which is found to be without action upon ordinary tinned iron, and now it is actually stored in vessels made of that material. A demand arising for the production of sulphuric anhydrite, a new industry has been stimulated.

When the Messrs. Perkin brought their artificial alizarine into the market, although it possessed certain advantages over madder, yet as they knew, they had to compete with the latter; it was therefore useless to ask relatively higher prices. At first the alizarine was sold to the Turkey-red dyers of Glasgow and Manchester; but as it produced a more scarlet shade than madder or its extract, garancine, it was mixed with these.

In this way for some time it kept up the sale of madder while directly competing with it. Although mixed with garancine, it produced shades more brilliant than when garancine alone was employed, but at the same time not too scarlet for the Turkey-red buyers.

Thus was begun that flood of bright colours, which in the last few years have been so striking. They are not, as some have supposed, brought forward under the influence of taste or fashion in their cycles, under which colours fashionable and favourite for a day go out of use. Taste has had as little to do with it as fashion. The manufacturers not only produced one new article—and the public run after novelty as novelty—but they produced a succession of novelties in colour. Strong is the saying that there is nothing new under the sun, and few things are brought out that seem new to us; but a history soon appears which tells that even these have appeared before. It is because novelty is this rarity that we cling to novelty and the shadow of novelty; and before anything can become stale, if we have not something new, we take up some fashion which is old and forgotten, and so looks quaint, odd, if not

really new. The mauve colours and their successors have been true novelties, and have exercised a great influence on the female mind. Thus wherever mauve or magenta or some fresh modification could be applied to a material, it was welcome.

Some conditions tend to bring colours under stable influences. Green is a holy colour among Mussulmans, and its application is limited. Orange acts on some of the Irish like red on a bull. In one shape or another, and particularly as ribbons, in these days a new colour can be flashed in the eyes of women all over the world, and the consumption becomes immense. Thus it has been with these dyes. A Parisian milliner, man-milliner or feminine, could only impose magenta on a limited crowd; but the manufacturers could send it everywhere, and it would speak for itself.

The sense of colour is one which is widely diffused even among the lower animal world, and there can be no doubt that these chemical applications of recent years have produced a corresponding influence upon mankind. No invention more useful has perhaps equalled the

effect of these fleeting hues, changeable as are the skies.

It is very well known that many once bright streams of our northern counties now flow murky-stained with dyes, and are made unfit for the drinking of men or kine. Thus, as our population grows, the supply of water becomes less, and at length the pollution of rivers is dealt with by law. It is claimed for the new dyes that they do not much stain the streams, whereas madder is full of ground woody stuff, of which some ten thousand tons were yearly floated into the rivers.

In the supply of new material for anthracene, although abundant complications arise according to the kind of coal employed in the gasworks, as yet England has had great facilities, because coal is abundant and gas largely made. The coal that is most favoured in the works being cannel, does not produce the most anthracene, which is yielded by the Newcastle and commoner coals. These effects have to be considered in estimating the anthracene produced, because as it is in a raw state its value depends not on its quantity, but on the degree and nature of the impurities

mixed up, and which have to be got out at greater or less cost. Thus, as it is with wool, good wool may be worth less than lower wool if the good wool is not well washed, but is left full of burrs and impurities, which give trouble in working it up. From want of care in these matters the produce of many countries brings a smaller market-price.

We have spoken of the abundant supply of the material for dyeing from the gasworks, and of the advantages we in this country possess; but such are the disturbing effects of invention that the character of the trade may be at any time affected. Thus, if electric lighting largely extends, as it is in the way to do, that means a restriction of gasworks, and that, so far as these matters are concerned, means a reduction of gas-products. Then, as Mr. Perkin suggests, it would have to be met by distilling the coal at the pit's mouth.

At first, in 1870, the Messrs. Perkin were able to get anthracene at 9*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* per cent per cwt.; but as the demand and competition of manufacturers increased, the price in 1872 stood as high as from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.*

Another coal product besides anthracene is

used in the dye-works, and that is naphtha, which is employed for purifying the anthracene. The anthracene itself has an impurity which is very troublesome, and that is paraffin, another of these chemical products now of such value for lighting.

They say there is no rose without a thorn; and if this is so with flowers, so does it seem to be with dyes. In crude anthracene, and the oils accompanying it, there is a peculiar organic base called acridine, from its acrid properties. The vapour causes sneezing and coughing, and it gives to the oils accompanying anthracene a very irritating action when rubbed on the skin. In hot weather the workmen employed in pressing or otherwise working with crude anthracene sometimes suffer very considerably from the pain it temporarily produces. It will be remembered that some time ago stockings were sold of the most remarkable and tempting hues; but the ladies who bought them, not for the legitimate purpose of covering their ankles, but of displaying them in such glory, were subjected to severe retribution. Dreadful blisters were raised, and the exhibition was continued under the doctor's

auspices. This was laid upon picrodine. Of course the haberdashers gave certificates that there were no poisonous ingredients in the hose; but this gave no consolation to the victims. Certain hues became unsaleable for stockings or gloves, and the tempter in vain offers the bait to female vanity. Painting the face is not unfrequently attended with deleterious effects, or even with death; and hair-dyes containing preparations of lead have brought on paralysis. It may be a matter for grave consideration to moralists whether, as tartar emetic is put in bottles of wine, to which pilferers have access, a little acridine or picrodine might not be judiciously mixed with all artificial appliances for simulating beauty. Thus science might be made available in repressing the weaknesses of womankind, always excepting the danger of a mischievous damsel putting a little acridine on her father's fleecy hosiery.

Having said so much about anthracene, it may be well to see what its operation was upon madder and garancine. In 1859, and again ten years later, the value of madder was 45*s.* a cwt.; and for the Turkey qualities 50*s.*; and for gar-

ancine 150*s*. The total import into this country was worth a million sterling; the quantity of madder being 305,000 cwts., or 15,000 tons, and of garancine 45,000 cwts. The garancine was brought from the Continent. The madder from Turkey employed a large amount of freight, chiefly in English steamers. Such was the effect of the competition that, in five years, in 1875, the trade was brought down to a third in quantity, and in 1878 the import of madder was only one-tenth of what it formerly was, or 15,000 cwts., and of the garancine not one-twentieth, and still declining. The value has shrunk still more, for madder in 1878 was worth 17*s*. per cwt., and later 11*s*. instead of 50*s*.; and garancine has fallen to 65*s*. Thus the whole value of imports, formerly of importance, and amounting to a million, is now between thirty and forty thousand pounds.

Of the Dutch madder imported the use is chiefly for wool-dyeing; and even the wool-dyers are trying artificial alizarine.

The displacement of commerce is the more noticeable, as it does not represent a real loss of trade, but the contrary. The madder and

garancine so reduced, and which had been paid for abroad, were replaced by substances of which the material was of home extraction, and, indeed, as already shown, what had been a waste product.

This gave us a great commercial advantage; nor was this confined to an economy of nearly a million sterling. The possession of the new substance enabled us to compete very effectually with the foreigner in dyed goods, which we could produce more cheaply and expeditiously, and we were also able to supply foreign markets with the dye-stuffs.

Then we come to another aspect of the matter. Many of the new processes were of English invention; but as patents were not granted to our inventors abroad, the foreign manufacturers, after a time, produced the articles on cheaper terms, and besides supplying continental markets they even attempted to get into the home market. This was done by a commercial fraud, which remained for a long time undetected. In fact some unscrupulous Germans imported into this country the dyes under the name of garancine until detected at the Custom House.

Although the scientific bases of the discovery were laid in Germany, the practical manufacture was established in England, and, for some time, Messrs. Perkin & Sons had it to themselves. At length, in 1871, Messrs. Graebe & Liebermann were stirred up to turn their discovery to account, and began to supply the continental market. In time other firms in France and Germany engaged in the trade; but Messrs. Graebe & Liebermann held a large share of it.

So far as is known, England makes only one-seventh of the total amount; France and Switzerland each a smaller quantity; and Germany the lion's share of nearly two-thirds, commanding the export trade.

As to madder, its growth cannot now be started at a profit, and it must die out. The effect of this is a very great injury to the agriculture of Asiatic Turkey. There, as in many Eastern countries, it is not the growth of corn which is the chief object, but that of high-priced products, which can bear the expense of freight to distant markets. An introduction of such a product is a source of wealth, its destruction means poverty. The injury to the Turkish peasants will, therefore,

be very great, but there comes into view a larger matter, which touches us more.

The introduction into India of the improved cultivation of indigo is one of the great feats of Englishmen, and the indigo factories of Bengal are well known. This trade is a great resource of India. We have seen what has happened to madder culture by the production of artificial garancine, and we may look for a like doom for indigo in the substitution of artificial aniline for its colouring matter. It has been shown by Baeyer that indigo can be produced artificially; but at present no practical means are known to Mr. Perkin for carrying on the manufacture. There is every reason to believe that before many years this will be effected, and then, as he anticipates, the cultivation of the indigo plant will share the fate of madder. That means the annihilation of the value of indigo factories and estates in India, the displacement of their English owners and managers and native workmen, the cessation of the local consumption of the dye, and also the stoppage of freight for our shipping in conveying indigo to Europe. In return we shall get the smaller freight on the

chemical, and we may or may not have the supply of it, as Germany or Belgium may supply a cheaper article. The compensation we shall get will be in the saving on the cost price of the dye for our own use. Thus we have to face another example of displacement of human industry on a large scale under the subtle influences of scientific investigation, theory mastering practice, mind overcoming matter.

In compensation one practical application of aniline is in the constitution of inks, which are the basis of the Polygraph, Myriograph, Lick-'em all-graph, and the many new processes which enable the merchant to throw off forty or fifty or more copies of circulars.

Mr. Perkin's career presents not only an example of a man reaping a large reward for his inventions, but of his retiring early with an ample fortune. By 1873 the dye manufacture had made rapid strides, and capitalists interested in it were making enormous profits, even of many thousands a year for a single partner. Thus the Messrs. Perkin had offers for the sale of their works, and in that year were able to make an advantageous arrangement.

Nothing now remained but for Mr. Perkin to spend his life in ease, according to vulgar notions, doing no work, which some conceive must be the height of enjoyment, and laying out his money lavishly for his own amusement and ostentation. Some misuse great opportunities, and fortunes which might have been earned by hard and honest labour are so disposed of by the men, their wives, and children, as to be an injury rather than a benefit to society. Ostentation is a natural accompaniment of sudden and unexpected wealth, as also of wealth undeserved, when fraud has accompanied its accumulation. Palatial abodes, horticultural luxury pushed to extravagant limits, pictures bought not for the encouragement of art, but the indulgence of display, excite the adulation of the mob, the envy of the low, and the self-sufficiency of the owner. Several young men and women who might have led a life of honest industry are thrown on the world in idleness, and with abundant means for its gratification. Thus are stimulated influences which tend to the demoralisation of society. On the one side, persons without settled pursuits abandon them-

selves to reckless dissipation, or at the best to avowed indolence; and while some sigh to enjoy their lot, others look with evil eyes on the ostentatious indulgence in ill-spent wealth. Whatever consideration is shown for the worker who has made his own way in the world, there is little for the men and women who are the creatures of fortune, and too often the revilers of labour and of merit.

To obtain a competence is in England happily no uncommon reward of exertion, and is a valuable stimulus to the accumulation of national and individual wealth. Its enjoyment, however, is another matter, and that is what few achieve to the full. It is natural that a man should look to share his possessions with his children, but in apportioning these shares he is apt to leave out of consideration other heirs. No man's wealth is in this day wholly of his own production, but it is due to the advantages he has received from the community in which he has been brought up. Well-thinking men bear this in mind in their prosperity, and hence we see those useful and munificent institutions which do honour to their founder and our country. A man's

responsibilities no more end with the acquisition of a fortune than does his life.

Mr. Perkin did not forget this. In his retirement from business, while enjoying the property he has created, he has devoted himself as much as before to those scientific pursuits from which his fellow-countrymen may reap honour and advantage. He has likewise been a liberal contributor to funds for research. He has had no reason to regret the course he has pursued; while acquiring fresh titles to gratitude, he has already received many testimonies of respect. He is a Fellow of the Royal Society in virtue of his scientific attainments, and has received such tributes as that Society and the Chemical Society can award to him—the Royal Society having bestowed a medal upon him. It is to be hoped that he will live many years to pursue a useful career; and should further pecuniary success attend his labours, it will add, not to his cares, but to his means of doing good.

THE CUNARD STEAMSHIP COMPANY.

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THE first steamboat that crossed the Atlantic sailed from Savannah on May 25th, 1819, and arrived in Liverpool on the 20th of the following month. This vessel was called the Savannah, and, during the few weeks that she remained at anchor in the Mersey, people came from all parts of the country to see this new marvel of navigation. The Savannah was a nine days' wonder, and its captain and crew were received everywhere as maritime heroes. In the autumn, she returned to the United States, and was shortly afterwards shipwrecked off Long Island. The public regarded the Atlantic trip of the Savannah more as an interesting scientific experiment than a really practical development of a new and mighty power; it was not a matter for surprise, therefore, that for

the next fourteen years no further attempt was made to bridge the Atlantic by the aid of steam.

On August 18th, 1833, however, there sailed from Quebec a second steamship, the Royal William, which reached Gravesend on September 11th. It was five years later before England ventured to despatch a steamer over the Atlantic. This was the Sirius, which left London for New York on April 4th, 1838. Within three days from that date the Great Western followed in the wake of the Sirius from Bristol, the former making the voyage to New York in seventeen days and the latter in fifteen. As yet Liverpool, which was destined to become the chief port of steamer communication between this country and America, had not sought to compete in this new enterprise; but in the summer of 1838, another Royal William was fitted out at Liverpool, and July 6th of that year she sailed from the Mersey, and succeeded in crossing the Atlantic in a somewhat shorter space of time than the voyage had previously been accomplished in. Nineteen days from leaving Liverpool the Royal William arrived at New York, and the voyage back occupied only fourteen days and a half.

It now became apparent that the ocean steamship problem had been solved; and fortunately for the world, men were found at this juncture possessed of sufficient foresight, energy, and ability to turn the new power to the best account. Mr. Samuel Cunard was one of the first to foresee the great results that might be achieved by the establishment of steamer communication between the United States and England; and as far back as the year 1830, in his quiet home in Nova Scotia, his mind was busily engaged in thinking over the best means of carrying out this project. In 1838 Mr. Cunard came to England eagerly bent upon putting his idea into actual operation, and, introduced by Sir James Melvill of the India House, he presented himself to Mr. Robert Napier of Glasgow, the eminent marine engineer, and the result of their deliberations was that Mr. Cunard gave Mr. Napier an order to make four steamships for the Atlantic service. These four vessels were to be of 900 tons each, and 300 horse-power. Mr. Napier advised the building of larger vessels, and ultimately it was arranged that the four vessels should each be of 1,200 tons burden and

440 horse-power. The project now assumed a proportion which was beyond the resources of a single private individual, and Mr. Cunard and Mr. Napier taking counsel together hit upon the idea of forming a company. Messrs. Burns of Glasgow and Messrs. MacIver of Liverpool, after having run coasting steamers in keen rivalry for several years, had in 1830 amalgamated their undertakings; and this firm of Burns & MacIver was, at the time that Mr. Samuel Cunard came to England, one of the most prosperous shipping companies in England. The proposal to form an Atlantic steamship company was mooted to Messrs. Burns & MacIver by Mr. Napier, and the outcome of this was the establishment in 1839 of the British and North American Royal Mail Steam Packet Company. About this time the Government decided, on grounds of public convenience, as well as with the view of promoting the extension of steam navigation, to abandon the curious old brigs which had been used for so many years for the conveyance of the mails across the Atlantic, and to substitute steam mail-boats. The Admiralty accordingly advertised for tenders for the execution of this service, and

the Great Western Steam Shipping Company and the newly-formed company of Messrs. Cunard, Burns & MacIver were the principal competitors. The tender of the latter firm was accepted, and a seven years' contract was at once entered into between the Lords of the Admiralty on the one part, and Samuel Cunard, George Burns, and David MacIver on the other part, for the conveyance of mails between Liverpool and Halifax, Boston and Quebec, in consideration of the annual sum of 60,000*l.* One of the conditions of the bargain was that the ships engaged in this service should be of sufficient strength and capacity to be used as troopships in case of necessity.

The first four ships built under Mr. Napier's direction for the Cunard Company were the Britannia, the Acadia, the Caledonia, and the Columbia. It was on July 4th, 1840, that the Britannia set out from Liverpool to make for the new company the first trip across the Atlantic. Liverpool was in a condition of great excitement on the day of the vessel's departure; thousands of people crowded the quays to watch her out, and it was felt that a new era of oceanic intercourse

had been inaugurated by this memorable event. The ship's destination was Boston ; New York not being made the port of communication for the Cunard steamers until 1848. Mr. Cunard sailed in the Britannia on its initial voyage, and had the satisfaction of witnessing the vessel's safe arrival at Boston, after having called at Halifax, within fourteen days and eight hours of leaving Liverpool. To the American people the occasion was even of greater moment than to the English ; for it placed their vast continent, with all its undeveloped resources, within easier reach of the civilising influences and commercial activity of Europe, and drew the old country and the new into closer relationship. The Britannia steamed into Boston's historical harbour on Saturday evening, July 19th, 1840, and the inhabitants of this most English of American cities assembled in immense crowds along the wharves to welcome this new harbinger of peace and prosperity. Salvoes of artillery were fired, lamps were hung out in all directions, flags and banners waved from masts, roofs, and windows, and the utmost enthusiasm prevailed. Never since the landing of the Pilgrim Fathers had the shores of

America experienced so important an event. Before Mr. Cunard had been twenty-four hours in Boston he had been made the recipient of no fewer than eighteen hundred invitations to dinner; and on July 22nd, three days after the Britannia's arrival, a grand public banquet was given, presided over by Mr. Josiah Quincey, junior, to celebrate the establishment of steam postal communication between America and Great Britain.

The Britannia was a wooden vessel, 207 feet in length, 34 feet 2 inches in breadth, and 22 feet 4 inches in depth; she carried 225 tons of cargo, and could accommodate 90 first-class passengers. The speed at which she made the voyage out and home averaged eight and a half knots an hour. It was on this very vessel that Charles Dickens made his first voyage to America, as recorded in his *American Notes*, in January, 1842. The scene on the Mersey has been described by him in his happiest vein. "Every gallant ship was riding slowly up and down," he wrote, "and every little boat was splashing noisily in the water; and knots of people stood upon the wharf, gazing with a kind of 'dread delight' on the far-famed fast

American steamer; and one party of men were 'taking in the milk,' or, in other words, getting the cow on board; and another were filling the ice-houses to the very throat with fresh provisions—with butcher's meat and garden-stuff, pale sucking-pigs, calves' heads in scores, beef, veal, and pork, and poultry out of all proportion; and others were coiling ropes and busy with oakum yarns; and others were lowering heavy packages into the hold; and the purser's head was barely visible as it loomed in a state of exquisite perplexity from the midst of a vast pile of passengers' luggage; and there seemed to be nothing going on anywhere, or uppermost in the mind of anybody, but preparations for this mighty voyage." Three years later another distinguished personage made the trip across the Atlantic in the Britannia, Sir Charles Lyell, and he too put upon record his impressions of the voyage, in a work which he published during the same year, 1845.

It was not long after the launching of the Britannia that the other three vessels included in the first contract with Mr. Robert Napier —the Acadia, the Caledonia, and the Columbia

—were despatched from the shipyards of the Clyde to take their places on the Atlantic line. They were all of about the same size and tonnage, and were the finest paddle-steamers afloat. In comparison, however, with the vessels which were afterwards built, and notably with the steamers built during the last few years for the Cunard line, these first four packets were very diminutive. The Gallia has a gross tonnage of 4,809, an effective horse-power of 5,300, and can accommodate 300 cabin and 1,200 steerage passengers; and the company have still larger vessels building at the present time. The Servia has a gross tonnage of 8,500 and an effective horse-power of 10,500.

She has seven boilers, six of them double and one single ended, and all made of steel with corrugated furnaces. The total number of furnaces is 39. The Servia is practically a five-decker, having orlop, lower, main, upper, and promenade decks. She is divided into nine watertight compartments, and the bulkheads are built according to the Admiralty requirements for war purposes. The vessel can be got ready at any moment to receive her

armament according to the Admiralty requirements.

The success of the Cunard venture induced other companies to make extraordinary exertions to outstrip this fleet of steamers, the Great Western Company being, perhaps, the most energetic in carrying on the competition. This company sought, by building larger ships than those owned by Messrs. Cunard, Burns & MacIver, to divert the bulk of the Atlantic steamer traffic to themselves; but a series of disasters attended their early undertakings, and greatly retarded the success of their opposition. The ill-fated President was launched by them in December, 1839, and, after a few voyages to the United States, was lost on her return voyage to England in April, 1841, never having been heard of after leaving America. The Great Western Company then set about building their immense iron steamer, the Great Britain, which in magnitude and splendour far surpassed any vessel that had up to that time been seen. She was built at Bristol, and measured 321 feet long and 51 feet broad, and was of 2,984 tons burden. The public papers

justly hailed her as a maritime wonder; the Queen and the Prince Consort visited her as she lay in the Thames; and almost as much interest was evinced in her as was subsequently displayed in regard to that unwieldly giant of the deep, the Great Eastern. The Great Britain was intended for the Atlantic service, and set forth for her first voyage to the United States in December, 1843; but, unfortunately, she was stranded in Dundrum Bay, off the coast of Ireland, and was not able to be floated until the following spring, when she was told off, for the Australian service, and until a comparatively recent period made regular trips between England and the Antipodes, and was the favourite ship of the line. The Great Western Company were ultimately compelled to yield the supremacy of the Atlantic service to the Cunard Company; but this did not hinder others from entering into competition. The British and American Steam Navigation Company went so far as to cause a parliamentary inquiry to be instituted on the subject of the conveyance of the mails between England and the United States; but the only result was to

obtain the further ratification of the mail contract between the Government and Messrs. Cunard, Burns & MacIver. After a year's experience, the amount of the annual subsidy to this firm was raised from 60,000*l.* to 80,000*l.*

The Cunard fleet was not long limited to the four steamers by which the Atlantic mail service had been inaugurated; not only did the demands in respect to the mails increase, but the passenger and cargo traffic grew at a rate that exceeded all expectation. The steamers Hibernia and Cambria, each of 1,423 tons burden, were added, and these, together with the four vessels by which the service was originally commenced, sufficed for the company's requirements until the expiration of the first term of seven years, when the Government having come to the determination to have a weekly instead of a fortnightly mail service, the Cunard Company found it necessary to double the number of their steamers. Again Mr. Robert Napier's skill was called into requisition on behalf of the company, and the result was that, at the beginning of 1848, four additional steamers—the America, the Canada, the Niagara, and the Europa—were

set afloat on the Cunard Atlantic service. These vessels ranged from 1,800 to 1,900 tons burden, and from 600 to 700 horse-power, a marked increase in size and capacity being again effected. In 1850 two still larger steamers were added, the Asia and the Africa, each of 2,227 tons burden and 750 horse-power. Then came the building of the Arabia, a vessel of 2,400 tons burden and 285 feet long. This was the turning-point in the ship-building experience of Messrs. Cunard, Burns & MacIver. The Arabia was a splendid ship, and was largely used in the transport of troops and war material during the Crimean war; but it was considered that she was quite as large as it was desirable to make a wooden vessel; and in 1852 it was determined to substitute iron for wood, and from that time all the additions to the Cunard fleet consisted of iron steamers. Sir William Fairbairn at Manchester and at Millwall, Messrs. Laird at Birkenhead, and the great shipbuilders on the Clyde had by this time succeeded in establishing the principle of iron ships; and the Cunard Company, always anxious to keep abreast with the progress of maritime invention, saw the force

of superseding their wooden fleet by an iron one, with all the speed that circumstances would permit. At the beginning of 1852 they had a fleet of thirteen wooden vessels, propelled by paddle-wheels, of a capacity ranging from 1,139 to 2,400 tons burden; but in that year two iron screw steamers, the Andes and the Alps, were built, and these being shortly afterwards engaged, like the Arabia, in the conveyance of troops to the Crimea, it became incumbent upon this prosperous and enterprising company to proceed with their shipbuilding operations without delay. Accordingly two more iron screws, the Jura and the Ætna, were built in 1854 and 1855, and were immediately imported into the Atlantic service. The success of these iron steamers was undoubted; and in course of time it was found advisable to abandon paddles as the propelling power, and rely simply on the screw. The paddle was not relinquished, however, before it had been experimented upon on a more extensive scale. With the view of fully testing the capacity of the paddle, the Persia, iron paddle-steamer, was built in 1856 by the Cunard Company. She was of 3,300 tons burden and 900 horse-power;

and although she was a splendid vessel, and did the work that was required of her, the conclusion was ultimately arrived at that the screw was the most effective power at command for ocean steamers; and after 1862, when the Scotia was launched, no further experiment was made on the Cunard service in paddle steamers.

The business of the Cunard Company increased year by year, in spite of the keen rivalry to which they were naturally subjected—a rivalry which, while it did not impair the success of the Cunard undertaking, was, it must be admitted, to the profit and advantage of the public. Messrs. D. & C. MacIver managed the concern in Liverpool; Messrs. G. & J. Burns directed it in Glasgow; Messrs. Cunard & Co. in Halifax, Nova Scotia; and Messrs. Edward Cunard & Co. in New York. All these gentlemen brought to bear upon the enterprise a rare amount of skill and energy; and from the first they worked together in perfect accord and sympathy, and were thus enabled to act with as much directness of aim and purpose as if the control of their vast affairs had been in the hands of one individual. Mr. David MacIver only lived a

few years after the formation of the company; but his brother, Mr. Charles MacIver, continued to manage the Liverpool house for very many years. Mr. Charles MacIver's eldest son, Mr. David MacIver, was for eleven years a partner in the company, but retired in 1874; in the same year he was elected M.P. for Birkenhead, which constituency he has since continued to represent. His brothers, Mr. Charles MacIver and Mr. Henry MacIver, also became members of the company, and both of them were until recently on the board of directors. Messrs. George Burns and James Burns for many years devoted themselves vigorously to the business of the partnership, and realised handsome fortunes thereby. Mr. George Burns, after his retirement, became the purchaser of the Wemyss Bay property, near Glasgow, where he settled down to an honourable old age, esteemed and respected by his fellow-townsmen for the many good and noble works with which his name has been associated. His two sons, Mr. John Burns, who is the owner of Castle Wemyss, and Mr. James Cleland Burns, who lives at Glenlee, near Hamilton, succeeded to the Glasgow business, and

the former is now the chairman of the Cunard Company, while the latter is one of the directors. Mr. J. S. Jeans, in his *Western Worthies*, makes the following allusion to the Burns family: "In their private capacities, each and all of the family have been distinguished for their ready and liberal support of measures calculated to improve the moral, social, and religious condition of their fellow-townsmen, and an appeal for support to a deserving object has never been made to them in vain. Mr. George Burns has always been ready to afford personal service and pecuniary assistance to schemes of a benevolent or philanthropic nature. The name of Mr. John Burns is a 'tower of strength' where there is a good cause to be promoted. He rendered valuable service in assisting to establish the Cumberland training-ship—an institution which, in its proved results, has done more than all the rest of our industrial institutions put together to reform our street Arabs, and to inspire them with higher aims and better motives in life. During the three years (previous to 1872) that have elapsed since the Cumberland was brought to the Gareloch, Mr. Burns has acted as its

president; and in the midst of his own multitudinous and incessant business duties he has not failed to bestow upon its affairs great attention. As an honorary president of the Foundry Boys' Religious Society, which embraces within its pale upwards of 14,000 boys and girls in the humblest ranks of life, he has likewise assisted very materially to promote the welfare of the city. For their own servants the Messrs. Burns have displayed an exemplary solicitude. They have provided a chapel in Glasgow for the sailors employed in their coasting trade; and they defray the expenses connected with the support of a chaplain, who visits the men on board ship sailing with each vessel in turn, and preaching in the chapel on Sundays. Through the chaplain, who visits the wives and families of the sailors when they are away on duty, the Messrs. Burns are made aware of the circumstances and condition of the sailors in their employment, and they spare no trouble to maintain an efficient and sober body of men in a happy and comfortable position."

In 1859, in recognition of the great services which he had rendered to this country by the

establishment of the Cunard line of mail-steamers, Her Majesty, upon the recommendation of Lord Palmerston, conferred a baronetcy upon Mr. Samuel Cunard. He was succeeded on his death, both in his business and his title, by his son Edward, who continued his connection with the company up to the time of his decease in 1869, when the title devolved upon the present baronet, Sir Bache Edward Cunard. Sir Bache was born in 1851, and has not been connected with the management of the undertaking originated by his distinguished grandfather. Besides having a town residence, Sir Bache Edward Cunard is the happy possessor of a seat at Staten Island, New York, and another at Nevill Holt, Market Harborough. The only member of the Cunard family now associated with the Cunard steamship enterprise is Mr. William Cunard, the second son of Sir Samuel Cunard, and uncle of the present baronet.

In the year 1852 the Cunard Company established steam communication between Liverpool and the ports of the Mediterranean. Their steamers have also performed the mail service between Glasgow, Greenock, and Belfast; they

have had lines of steamers plying between Liverpool and Glasgow, and Glasgow and Londonderry; and they likewise have had steamers carrying the mails between Halifax, Nova Scotia, Bermuda, and St. Thomas. From the year 1840 down to the present time the Cunard Company have built no fewer than 122 steamers, and their entire fleet now comprises thirty steamships, having an aggregate tonnage of 69,604 tons and 44,445 effective horse-power. In one year (1874), as recorded in the *Times*, from information supplied by Messrs. MacIver, "the twenty-two ocean vessels of the Atlantic fleet made one hundred and twenty-three trips from Liverpool to New York and Boston, and the same number in the opposite direction. The outward-bound steamers carried 9,198 cabin-passengers and 26,570 steerage-passengers (mostly emigrants) from England to America. The homeward-bound steamers brought 7,933 cabin-passengers and 15,158 steerage-passengers from America to England. In a single year, therefore, the Company conveyed nearly 59,000 persons across the Atlantic; a number greater than the entire population of such a town as Exeter, Derby,

Cheltenham, or Halifax, and nearly equal to that of the island of Jersey. If the officers and crew were counted, the total would be over 100,000."

With a history extending over forty busy years, with a fleet that has comprised from the beginning upwards of one hundred and twenty large steamers, with a constant floating population of many thousands to guard and protect, and with all the dangers of wind and wave to battle against, it might naturally be supposed that the Cunard Company would have a long list of disastrous incidents, shipwrecks, and losses to recount; but it is the boast of the proprietors of the Cunard line that, from 1840 to the present time, not one of their passengers has lost his life by accident on any of the thousands of voyages that have been made across the Atlantic in their ships. They have not lost a single vessel, and the few accidents which have happened to the machinery or otherwise have only resulted in temporary delays, without endangering the safety of the passengers. Many things have combined to secure to the Cunard ships this astonishing

immunity from disaster. In the first place, the Company have always insisted on having their vessels built of the best possible materials, whether wood or iron; they have enjoined the most thorough and effective workmanship; they have kept their vessels under such careful supervision as to insure the slightest defect in strength or seaworthiness being discovered; and they have never allowed a steamer to start on a voyage unless they have been satisfied of its being complete, perfect, and efficient. In the next place, they have chalked out separate routes for outward-bound and homeward-bound steamers, somewhat apart from the most direct course; and although by adopting this plan they may have lengthened their voyages by a few hours, this has been more than atoned for by the increased sense of security which has been induced. The outward-bound steamers cross the meridian of 50° at 43° lat., or nothing to the north of 43°; while the homeward-bound vessels cross the same meridian at 42° lat. or nothing to the north of 42°. The care and skill exercised in the navigation of this line of steamers have been amply rewarded by the prosperity

and success which have resulted therefrom. The original proprietors were men of remarkable administrative ability and foresight, and the principles which they laid down at the beginning of their undertaking, and so strictly adhered to during the early years of their management, have been as rigidly followed by their successors: with the Cunard Company, thorough efficiency, costly as it may have been to keep it up, has proved the truest economy, and the fortunes that have been gained by their enterprise have been the result of unbending firmness of purpose, thorough integrity, and an ever-present anxiety to serve the public well.

Free as the Cunard steamers have been from serious mishaps, it must not be imagined that they have been deprived of their share of exciting incidents. Calm, dead, unbroken monotony would be worse to bear than the presence of danger. Luxurious as the saloons and state-rooms of these fine vessels are, excellent as is the Cunard *cuisine*, rich as every voyage must be in the employment it gives to the student of character, entertaining as the evening concerts are, and romantic as the night-pacings on deck

must prove amidst the cheery sound of the sailors' voices, the plash and roar of the waves and the mysterious deep-toned rumblings of the ponderous machinery, something more than these is expected in the way of excitement during an ocean voyage. A fire, a mutiny, or a collision with another ship might be too much; but the passenger who retains his health and vigour, and succumbs not to sea-sickness, will certainly be disappointed if something out of the ordinary run should not occur while he is passing from the Old World to the New, or *vice versâ*. It will be comforting to such individuals, therefore, to be told of one or two of the incidents which the Cunarders have had to relate from time to time. Mr. Eliot Warburton tells in his *Hochelaga* how, while he was a passenger, in 1846, from America to England on board the Cunard steamer Cambria, commander Captain Judkins, Frederick Douglas, the well-known abolition lecturer, himself a man of colour, was the means of causing a serious disturbance by denouncing slavery and its upholders in a lecture he got up to deliver on the quarter-deck. "A New Orleans man," wrote Mr. Warburton, "the master of

a ship in the China trade, and who had been during the greater part of the voyage, and was more particularly on this occasion, very much intoxicated, poked himself into the circle, walked up to the speaker with his hands in his pockets and a 'quid' of tobacco in his mouth, looked at him steadily for a minute, and then said, 'I guess you're a liar!' The negro replied with something equally complimentary, and a loud altercation ensued between them. Two of the gentlemen in the circle stood forth at the same time to restore order, both beginning very mildly, but unfortunately suggesting different means of accomplishing the desired object. After this matters grew quickly worse, other friends of the disputants interfered, and a series of quarrels immediately broke out, and for upwards of an hour the deck was the scene of the utmost tumult and disorder. In the end, through the intervention of the officers of the ship, and the better class of the passengers of both countries, the storm was quelled." Such an exceptional incident as this, however, has never happened since; it resulted in the company issuing certain orders to their officers which

have effectually prevented the recurrence of anything of the kind.

Mr. W. Fraser Rae tells an exciting little story in connection with a voyage by the Cunard steamer Atlas a few winters ago. The vessel had reached mid ocean, and one night, while the passengers were amusing themselves in the saloon by reading or playing cards, chess or draughts, the weather being too rough to admit of their walking the deck, the boatswain came down and whispered the ominous words, "The ship is on fire, sir," in the captain's ear. The captain at once went on deck, and was followed by others to whom he had communicated the intelligence. "There they saw a thick volume of dense smoke rising from the forward hatch. One of them returned to the saloon and told the horrible news. Anxiety was manifested as to how soon the fire would be extinguished; but there was little excitement and no sign of panic, most of the players resuming their games, and the readers returning to their books. Confidence was evidently felt that everything which mortals could do to avert a dread calamity would be performed. In the steerage, on the contrary, there was ignorance without self-possession; women

shrieked, men rushed about in aimless despair. The first-class passengers, who wished to make themselves useful, and offered to aid the crew, were asked to help in carrying the terror-stricken men, women, and children from the steerage, where they were in the way, to the poop, where they would give less trouble. These passengers refused to be comforted or to be quiet; their groans and lamentations alone disturbed the apparent harmony of the hour. The crew and the officers were as cool and reticent as if nothing unusual had happened. The officer on duty walked the bridge, giving his entire attention to navigating the ship; the men on the look-out were at their posts; the engineers were in their places in the engine-room; the stewards were at their usual work; indeed, the business of the ship went on like clockwork, while a fire was raging in the hold, and all on board were in jeopardy. At the end of half an hour from the alarm being given the boatswain said the ladies might be informed that the danger was nearly over; in truth, the fire had been thoroughly mastered, and all the danger was at an end." It was ascertained that the fire had been caused by the ignition of some combustibles which had been

shipped contrary to the company's regulations. As an instance of the excellent discipline which prevails on these steamers, and the readiness with which any emergency can be met, this story is well worth remembering.

On another occasion, while the Russia was steaming nobly along at the rate of fourteen knots an hour, with a good breeze blowing, the cry went forth that a man had leaped overboard. The next instant a second splash was heard. A sailor had jumped after his misguided shipmate in the hope of saving him. The ship was stopped and put back with amazing promptitude, and it was found that the gallant attempt at rescue had failed; the brave fellow who had made the endeavour, however, and who was none other than the late Captain Webb, was taken up, and the passengers subscribed a purse of one hundred sovereigns as a reward for his brave conduct.

Whales are often seen in the course of a voyage across the Atlantic, and are objects of much interest to passengers. Usually they do not come very near to a large steamer; but a year or two ago one of these monsters was accidentally run into by the Scythia; and the force of the collision was

so great that the vessel's screw propeller was broken, and she had to put back into Liverpool to get the damage remedied. As for the whale, it was utterly done for, its body being found shortly afterwards floating upon the water; a memento of the occurrence, in the shape of a plate made from its whalebone, is preserved in the Liverpool office of the company.

The steamers of this line have often been styled "floating palaces," and well do they deserve the title. It would be difficult to meet with anything more beautifully fitted up, or more luxurious as to comfort and convenience, than these vessels. The Russia does not carry steerage passengers at all, but is throughout fitted up for first-class passengers. The Bothnia, the Scythia, and the Gallia are the largest of the Cunard Company's steamers. The two first-named ships are twin vessels, with 420 feet length of keel, 42 feet 6 inches breadth of beam, and an unbroken deck promenade of 425 feet; and the Gallia is still larger, and possesses greatly increased power of speed. One of these immense vessels carries a crew of 150 officers and men, and each man is obliged to be a member of the crew of one or other of the

boats, of which the ship has ten, a number sufficient for the accommodation of the full complement of passengers and crew. In engaging their men, the Cunard Company only contract with them for a single voyage out and home again. It is open to any of the men to offer themselves for reëngagement, and the majority of them do; but the plan of short engagements has been found to work beneficially both for the men and the company. It is a pleasing sight to witness the assembling of one of these crews on board their ship in the Mersey when all is ready for the reception of the passengers. The commanding officer, the marine superintendent, and some principal member of the company make a full inspection of the ship, boats, and crew; and all the boats are manned, lowered, and replaced, in proof that they are in complete working order. The firemen are put through their drill, the pumps are manned and tested, the rockets and signals are seen to, the steering apparatus is tried, the store-rooms are inspected, and every part and feature of the vessel is thoroughly examined. This being done, the steamer is reported upon; and if everything is satisfactory the passengers come aboard at

the time announced for them, and away the vessel goes on its outward voyage, every possible precaution having been taken to insure the safety of the passengers. The Cunard steamers almost invariably leave the Mersey in the morning, the latter part of the day being avoided because of the risk there would be in navigating the river in semi-darkness.

The Cunard Company employ one way and another from 10,000 to 12,000 men. Upwards of 1,500 will be constantly engaged in the work of loading and unloading, and nearly that number in fitting and repairing vessels. They will always have 7,000 or 8,000 sailors employed, and these men may be regarded as amongst the finest men to be found in the whole merchant service. Mr. MacIver formed a volunteer artillery regiment in 1861, composed entirely of the Company's servants. Mr. MacIver was the colonel, and the regiment (the 11th Lancashire) was at one time about five hundred strong. The proposal to mobilise the volunteers in 1867 led the Company to disband this corps, seeing that they would have thereby lost the services of 500 of their best men. Although the proposal was not carried out, the

possibility of such a movement being at some future time put into operation decided Colonel MacIver not to reorganise the Cunard volunteers. The drill-shed came in useful, however, that same year, when, in apprehension of a Fenian outbreak, a body of troops, to the number of 1,200, were despatched to Liverpool; and Colonel MacIver placed at their disposal, free of charge, for upwards of a month, not only the drill-shed, but the two large steamers the Africa and the Australasian.

Until the year 1868 the management of the Cunard Company was carried on, as it were, in three divisions. There were the Messrs. MacIver at Liverpool, the Messrs. Burns at Glasgow, and the Messrs. Cunard in America; together they constituted the Cunard Company, but they conducted the business as three distinct undertakings. In 1868, however, a fresh deed of partnership was executed, by which Messrs. Cunard, Burns & MacIver became the sole partners as well as joint managers. This arrangement continued in force until May, 1878, when the concern was turned into a Limited Liability Company, with a capital of 2,000,000*l.* Of this capital 1,200,000*l.* was taken by Messrs. Cunard, Burns & MacIver

as part-payment for the property and business which they transferred to the new company. No shares whatever were offered to the public. By a rule of the London Stock Exchange, however, two-thirds of the capital any undertaking quoted in their official list must be allotted to the public; accordingly, to meet this requirement, Messrs. Cunard, Burns & MacIver consented to relinquish 533,340*l.* of their capital for the benefit of the public in the usual way. This was done, and the demand for the shares thus thrown open was enormously in excess of what was available. On this reorganisation taking place the Company's fleet was valued at the sum of 1,161,000*l.*, and the value of the wharves, plant, stores, &c., added thereto showed a total amount of 1,369,034*l.* as representing the absolute value of the property belonging to the Company. During the eleven years comprised between October 1st, 1868, and September 30th, 1879, which included a period of great commercial depression, the Company earned a net profit of over 8 per cent per annum on the amount of capital employed. During the same period the Company paid 450,127*l.* for insurance, and 1,151,396*l.* for main-

tenance and repairs of the fleet, equal together to an annual average of 145,592*l.* for expenditure. In the eight years from July, 1866, to July, 1874, they paid 189,351*l.* for tonnage dues, or an average of 23,668*l.* per annum, which was about one-thirteenth of the total tonnage dues, and about one-seventh of the total steam tonnage dues paid in the port of Liverpool during that time.

In March, 1883, Messrs. MacIver retired from the firm. Since then something like a new departure may be said to have been made in the administration of the affairs of the Company, and latterly speed as well as safety has been a leading consideration. During a recent visit to America Mr. John Burns announced his determination not to let the Cunard Company hold a second place on the Atlantic, and mentioned the fact that the Company had contracted with Messrs. John Elder & Co. for the building of two steamers of power and character superior to anything that had yet been devised for the Atlantic service. These ships are to be of 8,000 tons burthen and 13,000 horse-power. The sum involved constitutes the contract the largest ever made in the shipowning and shipbuilding world. The price

is in excess of 600,000*l.*, and it is intended that the two vessels shall make a speed of nineteen knots an hour, or cross the Atlantic in less than six days.

Having thus sketched in brief the rise and progress of one of the most powerful steamship companies in the world, it will be interesting to notice, still more briefly, the other lines of steamers which have since 1840 traded between the port of Liverpool and the leading ports of North America. One curious fact connected with the Atlantic steamship rivalry has been that the Americans have never succeeded in establishing a line of steamers which can be said to have been a thorough success. This has caused a good deal of bitterness of feeling amongst the capitalists of the United States, and has led to the most desperate endeavours being made to wrest the supremacy of the Atlantic traffic from English hands. Sir Samuel Cunard, it is true, belonged to the other side of the Atlantic, but he had to come over to England and secure English co-öperation before he could establish his undertaking. The New York Merchants combined in 1847 to establish a line of steamers, intended to

run to Southampton and Bremen, and the first ship of this line, the Washington, left New York in June, 1847, on the same day that the Cunard steamer Britannia left for Liverpool. The Americans were confident that their vessel, which had been built at a great cost, and was supposed to be supplied with many "improvements," would make the passage quicker than the Britannia, and their astonishment and disappointment were very great when they learned the Cunarder had touched the shores of England two days earlier than the Washington. A still more energetic attempt to found an American steamship line was made a year or two later, when Mr. E. K. Collins, the well-known shipowner and proprietor of a line of sailing-ships plying between New York and Liverpool, projected the Collins line of steamers. The United States Congress voted him a subsidy of 175,750*l.*, and at the beginning of 1852 he had four splendid steamships completed and running, and for a time they were very successful. In that year the Collins steamers conveyed across the Atlantic a considerably larger number of passengers than the Cunard steamers, and the Americans considered that

their enterprise had been properly rewarded, and that England would no longer be able to boast of her maritime superiority. The Collins steamers accomplished the Atlantic voyage in a day and a half less time than was occupied by the Cunard steamers in making the trip. This keen competition brought fares and rates of freight down wonderfully; within two years of the establishment of the Collins line the rate of freight was reduced from 7*l.* 10*s.* to 4*l.* per ton. Up to this point it looked as if the efforts of the Americans to outdo the Cunard line were about to be crowned with the most complete success. They had gone in for increased speed, and they had attained it. As Mr. Rae, to whom we are indebted for many particulars in connection with Atlantic steam navigation, tells us Senator Bayard informed Congress that they "must have speed, extraordinary speed, a speed with which the Collins steamers could overtake any vessel which they pursued, and escape from any vessel they wished to avoid; they must be fit for the purpose of a cruiser, with armaments to attack their enemy—if that enemy were Great Britain—in her most vital part, her commerce." Apart from the

bombast and exultation displayed by Americans of the Bayard stamp there was much to be said in favour of the Collins line of steamers, and had it not been for the lamentable disasters which befell the leading ships of this line, the venture might ultimately have been a financial success. But it was not to be; the Collins steamer Arctic came into collision on September 1st, 1854, with the French steamer Vesta, and out of 233 passengers and a crew of 135 on board the Arctic, only fourteen passengers and thirty-one of her crew were saved, Mr. Collins's wife, son, and daughter being amongst those who were drowned. This was a sad blow to a comparatively new undertaking, and was before long followed by another of almost equal severity. The Collins steamer Pacific, carrying forty-one passengers, a crew of 141, and a cargo valued at half a million sterling, left Liverpool on January 3rd, 1856, and was never heard of again. The losses thus sustained by the Collins Company were too great to be overcome, and the result was in 1858 the Collins line of Atlantic steamers was altogether relinquished. Many other attempts have since been made by capitalists and shipowners in the

United States to establish lines of Atlantic steamers which should vie with the English lines; but repeated failure has attended their efforts, and at the present time what is known as the American line which was started in connection with the Pennsylvania Railway, and sails between Philadelphia and Liverpool, is the only line which the citizens of the United States can regard as having to any extent successfully competed with the English companies in the work of connecting Great Britain with the American continent. Mr. Vanderbilt made a desperate attempt to establish an American line, and a Boston company made a bold venture in the same direction, but both enterprises failed. But although such little success has attended these various undertakings projected by the United States companies, the Canadians have been more fortunate. Messrs. M'Clean, M'Clarty, and Lamont of Liverpool contracted with the Canadian Government in 1852 for the conveyance of the mails between Quebec and Liverpool; and after this arrangement had been in existence four years, Messrs. Allan took the contract up, and the prosperous undertaking now known as the Allan line, running

between Quebec, Halifax, Portland, and Baltimore on one side of the Atlantic, and Liverpool and Glasgow on the other, was established.

To return to the Atlantic steam navigation enterprises which have originated in the United Kingdom, it is necessary to mention the unfortunate Galway line, which was started with such a flourish of trumpets in Ireland in 1860. This line, which was expected to do so much for the Irish, and in aid of which the British Government granted a subsidy of 3,000*l.* for each voyage out and home, was undertaken by a company formed under the title of the Royal Atlantic Steam Navigation Company. The collapse of this venture, however, was more sudden and more disastrous even than that of the Collins enterprise. Within the short period of eleven months the Galway line lost one of their finest steamers, the Connaught, and had two other steamers, the Hibernia and the Columbia, so seriously injured as to be rendered unfit for further employment; and the upshot was that a service which had been started under such favourable auspices on June 27th, 1860, was finally abandoned in the month of May, 1861.

Meanwhile other steamship companies had sprung into existence in Liverpool to meet the ever-growing traffic between this country and the United States. Prominent amongst these was the Inman undertaking, which was originated by the Liverpool, New York, and Philadelphia Steamship Company, of which Mr. William Inman was the managing director. Mr. Inman led the way in adopting iron as the material for building Atlantic steamers, and in resorting to the screw as the propelling medium. It was not until 1852 that the Cunard Company launched their first iron screw steamer. The first Inman iron steamer, the City of Glasgow, left Liverpool for Philadelphia on December 17th, 1850, and from that time to the present the powerful and splendidly equipped vessels of this line have continued to make the Atlantic trip in rapid succession. The Inman steamers made fortnightly voyages between Liverpool and Philadelphia until the year 1857, when New York was made the Company's principal port on the United States side. From the first this company's fleet has comprised some of the finest and swiftest vessels afloat, Mr. Inman having always insisted on the employment of the best

available engineering ability and the adoption of the most recent improvements. The City of Berlin is probably the largest passenger steamer in existence, being 525 feet in length and affording accommodation for 1,702 passengers and a crew of upwards of a hundred. Other favourite ships of this line are the City of Chester, the City of Brussels, the City of Richmond, and the City of Paris. It was to this line that the unfortunate City of Boston belonged, which sailed from Halifax, Nova Scotia, for Liverpool in 1870 and was never heard of again. In spite of this and other disasters, however, the Inman Company have, by the enterprise, energy, and ability which they have brought to bear upon their undertaking, been able to keep in the foremost rank of Atlantic lines, and have at the present time as efficient and well-managed a fleet as could be desired.

What is known as the National line, originated by the National Steam Navigation Company, was started in 1863 with a fleet of steamers of very large size. These vessels run between Liverpool and New York, and are held in great favour by the public. Up to the present time this

company has been as free from disaster as the Cunard Company, and success has attended their enterprise.

The Anchor line, projected by Messrs. Handyside & Henderson in 1865, began by running steamers between Glasgow and New York; they subsequently extended their operations to London, and now have weekly sailings both from Glasgow and London. This is essentially a Scottish line, and carries large numbers of north countrymen across the Atlantic every year, the arrangements for emigrants being of a very superior kind.

The year 1866 saw the establishment of the Guion line, which sends steamers from Liverpool to New York, and *vice versâ*, every week. This line was started by the Liverpool and Great Western Steamship Company and includes the Alaska and the Arizona, two vessels which have made extraordinarily swift passages between England and America, doing the distance from Queenstown to New York in something under seven days.

In the year 1870 Messrs. Ismay, Imrie & Co. made the most vigorous attempt which has

been witnessed in recent times to found an additional line of Atlantic steamers, and that attempt has succeeded beyond anticipation. The two leading lines up to that period had been the Cunard and the Inman lines; but Messrs. Ismay, Imrie & Co.'s steamers at once took their place as equal with the best, and their White Star line has from that time to this enjoyed a deservedly high reputation for the magnificence of its vessels, the thoroughly capable way in which they are equipped and managed, and the comfort and convenience which are afforded to passengers. The White Star steamers were in some respects an advance upon any previously-built vessels, and were constructed by Messrs. Harland & Wolff of Belfast.

In regard to all the combinations which go to the creation of a successful line of steamships, the Cunard line is able to claim the possession of these perhaps in the most complete degree. Over forty years' incessant service, without the loss of a single ship, a single passenger, or a single letter, is a stronger claim to public confidence than can be set up by

any other line whatsoever. Added to this there are these further facts: the Cunard fleet has been the largest engaged in the Atlantic trade; it sent out the first mail steamers that were despatched from this country to the United States; and whatever improvements have been made in the science of shipbuilding that could increase the comfort and safety of their passengers, or give additional facilities of any kind, have been taken advantage of: thus we have realised for us all the conditions that constitute a steamship company of the first rank. The men who have built up this gigantic undertaking have, while making fortunes for themselves, done much on behalf of the world's commercial progress, and their names will remain for all time indelibly inscribed in the records of England's maritime history

MESSRS. THOMAS WILSON, SONS & CO.,
THE HULL SHIPOWNERS.

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IN the olden time, the vagabond fraternity were accustomed to pray for deliverance "from Hell, Hull, and Halifax." The linking together of these three places, in this beggars' litany, has been sufficiently explained by Fuller, who relates that idle and dishonest persons were afraid of risking their bodies in Halifax because of the Gibbet Law that prevailed there, and avoided Hull for the reason that it was "terrible unto them as a town of good government, where vagrants meet with punitive charity, and, 'tis to be feared, are oftener corrected than amended." Much of the "good government" to which the historian refers was due, it is probable, to a strong determination on the part of the thrifty burgesses of Hull to protect their own particular interests rather

than a desire for perfect justice. The early merchant-adventurers of Hull were a bold and hardy race, and made the most of whatever opportunities were presented to them of improving their material prosperity, and advancing the position of the town as a trading port. They had, moreover, a manner of asserting themselves, which kept strangers and solicitants in awe; neither beggar nor prince could be permitted to trifle with the citizens of Hull. As a mark of the spirit that ruled amongst these founders of the Humber seaport's prosperity may be mentioned the significant incident of the wine-tasting dispute between the Mayor and Aldermen of Hull and the Archbishop of York, in the year 1378. The Archbishop insisted that he had the right to the first taste, and advanced, crozier in hand, accompanied by forty trusty followers, to carry his right into force; but the Mayor repelled the prelate's attack by wresting the crozier from him, and "laying about him so furiously" that many persons were injured and a riot was with difficulty prevented. From Hull, therefore, it was natural that those who

could not or would not fully subscribe to the wishes of her governors should earnestly desire deliverance.

In its early days, when wool and leather were its chief exports, and wines its leading imports, the town was known as Wyke-upon-Hull; but when Edward I. became absolute owner of the soil, by purchase, as well as sovereign lord, the royal charter which constituted it a free borough altered its name to Kyngeston-super-Hull, and Kingston-upon-Hull it remains to this day. The convenient and commanding situation of the port rendered it peculiarly suitable for the development of the shipping trade, and it rapidly rose to the position of the third port in the realm. In 1279 the three principal English ports were Boston, London, and Hull, the amount of customs duties collected at those places being: Boston, 3,599*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.*; London, 1,602*l.* 16*s.* 6½*d.*; Hull, 1,086*l.* 10*s.* 8*d.* The warden to whom Edward I. delegated the protection of his rights and the collection of customs at Hull was Richard Oysel, and this same Richard employed numerous ships in the interests of

his royal master. It was to private enterprise then, however, as it has been since, that the shipping trade of Hull was mainly indebted to its success, and the records of Edward I.'s period tell of one John de Bedford, who was a famous Hull shipowner in those days, and combined a little adventurous privateering with his more legitimate occupation. On one occasion this John de Bedford had the tables turned upon him in a rather clever manner by a Norwegian trader, Suaro Aslaa, and was nearly successful in bringing about a war between England and Norway. In 1313, it seems, one of John de Bedford's ships captured a vessel belonging to Suaro Aslaa, valued, with cargo, at 300*l.*; and three years later the Norwegian returned the compliment by possessing himself of one of De Bedford's ships. Instead of quietly accepting this as an excusable act of retribution, the Hull shipowner made bitter complaint to the King (Edward II.), and urged His Majesty to take prompt measures to resent upon the Norwegian this affront to British supremacy upon the seas. Edward II. thereupon sent a letter

to the King of Norway demanding the restoration of the Hull merchantman to its owner; but the Norseman returned answer that he preferred to let the matter remain where it was, and by his tone of defiance almost provoked Edward into taking the quarrel upon himself and sending the English fleet to chastise the saucy Norwegian.

Fortunately, the affair was allowed to stop at that point; for, great as John de Bedford was, he was by no means the only shipowner in Hull. The De la Poles were by this time upon the scene, and were bringing to bear upon the progress of the town an amount of business spirit, tact, and enterprise which accelerated the advancement of Hull's prosperity in a remarkable degree. This illustrious trading family rose to great wealth and eminence, and for several generations its members were of service to the State in providing the "sinews of war" from time to time, and otherwise rendering aid when their sovereign was compelled to raise large sums by speedy means. The first William de la Pole had settled at Ravensrod, a neighbouring

seaport, which fell into decay as rapidly as Hull expanded into celebrity; and so great was the esteem in which he was held by his monarch, that he received the honour of knighthood. The operations of the house of De la Pole extended to all parts of the continent of Europe, and many were the ships that they had continually going to and fro with merchandise over the North Sea and braving the dangers of the English Channel. And in those days there were other dangers than storm and tempest, rocks and quicksands; bands of pirates infested the seas, and numerous were the levies that they made upon the Humber merchantmen. But, despite all dangers and drawbacks, the De la Poles prospered, and the sons of Sir William, transferring the head-quarters of their firm to Hull, became even more prosperous than their father. It must have been a proud day for Hull when Edward III. was entertained by William de la Pole (son of Sir William) at his mansion in High Street, Hull, and a proud day for the King also, for his host on that occasion lent him 1,000*l.* in gold. It was in

order to oblige His Majesty that William de la Pole came to engage in banking transactions, borrowing money largely from other merchants to swell the loans to the State. In a charter issued by Edward while in France, in 1339, the obligation the King was under to the Hull merchant is thus recorded: "Know that our faithful and well-beloved subject, William de la Pole, presently after our coming to the parts on this side of the sea, hearing and understanding that our affairs were, for want of money, very dangerously deferred, and being sensible of our wants, came in person unto us, and to us and our followers made, and procured to be made, such a supply of money that by his means our honour hath been preserved. The said William undertook the payment of great sums for us to divers persons, for which he engaged himself by bonds and obligations; and if he had not done so we could not by any means have been supplied, but must necessarily, with a great deal of reproach, have abandoned our journey and our designs." For such services as these it was only natural that William de

la Pole should receive title and honour, being made, amongst other things, a baron of the Exchequer. His descendants, thanks to the wealth and footing he gave them, achieved still higher positions in the councils of the nation, the offices of Lord High Admiral, Lord Chancellor, Commander-in-Chief, and Prime Minister having been filled at one time or another by members of this renowned family. The throne itself seemed within their reach at one time, John de la Pole, Earl of Lincoln, being the declared heir-presumptive to the Crown, at the time of his death, in 1487, when the name disappeared altogether from the annals of the State.

From the period of the De la Poles downward, the shipowners of Hull have been an important element in the commercial history of this country. John Tutbury, who flourished in the early part of the fifteenth century, was a prominent Hull shipowner, and possessed the good-will of his fellow-citizens in such a degree, that he was six times elected to serve the office of Mayor of the borough. In those days the Hull ships brought to England paving-stones, bow-staves, wines, Spanish iron,

broadcloth, and many other articles which we have since been able to produce in far more liberal quantities than the countries from which we formerly imported such things. During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the Society of Merchant Adventurers did much for the prosperity of Hull; and the founding and carrying forward of the Northern Whale Fishery was also productive of additional wealth to the port. The town experienced its periods of depression, it is true; but, for the most part, was able to hold its own in the shipping world, feeling less of the fluctuations of commercial life than might have been expected, seeing how great the changes were at other seaports on the English coast. At the beginning of the thirteenth century, London was the first port in the kingdom, Boston the second, Southampton the third, Lincoln the fourth, Lynn the fifth, and Hull the sixth. Eighty years later Boston held the first place, London the second, and Hull the third, although a long way behind. Towards the close of the sixteenth century, Lynn was the most important port, Hull came second, and Yarmouth, Exeter, and Bristol followed in the order

named; while Boston, which for so long a period had stood at the head of English trading ports, had declined to the tenth position, Poole, Chester, Plymouth, and Newcastle being before her in point of commercial importance. It says much, therefore, for the people of Hull that they were able to sustain the prosperity of their port during all these centuries of change.

The Hull whaling community suffered severely in the time of the wars with France, the press-gangs making desperate inroads upon the fleets returning from Greenland, when men were required for Nelson's Fleet. It is worth while quoting an advertisement which was put forth in Hull in 1798, if only as a specimen of naval literature. The following was the wording:

"Port of Hull. Britons, strike home! Revenge your Country's wrongs! Wanted, a number of brave fellows to serve for the Port of Hull in His Majesty's Royal Navy in defence of the British Constitution against French Perfidy. All hearts of oak who have ambition to distinguish themselves by stepping forward to chastise the insolence of their enemies, and to convince the world that Britannia Rules the Waves, have now an oppor-

tunity to receive a Bounty for magnitude unexampled in the annals of their Country. Each able-bodied seaman, including the King's bounty, seventeen pounds ten shillings, without any deduction whatever. Volunteers will be protected to their various vessels, and will be entitled, besides the bounty, to their share of the rich prizes which British valour shall capture from the French, whom

'We'll fight and we'll conquer again and again.'

All true Britons are requested to repair without delay to the Commissioner, at the Rendezvous at Hull, where they will receive certificates to entitle them to the bounty."

This appeal to the patriotism of the Hull seamen, full as it was of the hearts-of-oak sentiment, and handsome as was the bounty that it was baited with, failed to attract the hardy fishermen to the Rendezvous in sufficient numbers, so the press-gang was set to work to supply the deficiency, with the result, sometimes, that the crews of the whalers overcame the men-of-war's men and maintained their liberty.

The carrying trade of Hull was prosecuted with great difficulty during these times; and had it

not been that the shipowners formed themselves into an association for mutual protection and defence, sending out their ships in convoys, and adopting many secret methods of communication, the trade of Hull would have been temporarily suspended. The sailing fleets of Hull comprised, in the early part of the present century, many noble vessels, and voyages were made by them to all parts of the world. They went to the West Coast of Africa for guano, to China for tea, to Quebec for timber, to Norway for ice, to India for cotton, and to Australia and South Africa with emigrants. But the advent of steam wrought a revolution in Hull as well as elsewhere, and there came into the shipping competition a class of men with enlarged commercial views and unbounded enterprise, who established fleets of steamers between Hull and many of the principal ports of the world, conveying the manufactured goods and original products of this country to distant lands, and bringing back valuable cargoes, far more varied and rich than those with which the argosies of old were laden.

The first steamer that was sent forth from the port of Hull was the Caledonian, which was built in 1815, and plied between Hull and Thorne.

A second steamer, the Rockingham, was soon afterwards added to this station. By 1820 there were several coasting steamers employed by the Hull shipowners, and a couple of fine vessels were put on to run between Hull and Hamburg, the first foreign port to which any Hull steamer was despatched. The Monarch and the London were on the Hamburg line; the Prince Frederick and the Yorkshireman made regular voyages between Hull and London, the average time of passage being thirty-two hours; the Lowther sailed between Selby, Hull, and Yarmouth, and a number of smaller craft, steam-tugs, were kept going between Hull, Selby, Goole, and Gainsborough.

The foreign trade has been rapidly developed during the last forty years, many eminent firms having been engaged in it. Messrs. Brownlow, Pearson & Co., Messrs. Sanderson & Co., Messrs. Gee & Co., and Messrs. W. & C. L. Ringrose were all sending steamers from Hull to foreign ports in the year 1840, Hamburg being the place with which the Humber seaport had the most frequent communication. Lines were also established to Antwerp, Rotterdam, Gothenburg, and St. Peters-

burg. In fact, by means of steam, Hull was placed in direct trade with all the countries of the earth, although then, as now, her chief business is with the German, Dutch, Swedish, Danish, and Russian seaboards. In 1850 the number of steamers sailing from Hull was 34, of a total register of 7,144 tons; besides which there was a fleet of 453 sailing vessels, with a tonnage of 62,471 tons. The increase of Hull steamers since then has been something marvellous. On December 31st, 1876, Hull had 196 steamers, of a total register of 128,633 tons, while the number of sailing ships had increased to 559, although the tonnage had fallen to 40,918 tons. The tonnage on which dues were received at Hull during the year 1880 was 2,346,788 tons, made up as follows; steamships, 1,996; sailing vessels, 1,302; foreign trade, 1,657,254 tons; coasting trade, 689,534 tons.

To one firm more than any other is due this remarkable expansion of the steamship trade of Hull during the last forty years. The firm in question is that of Messrs. Thomas Wilson, Sons and Co., whose fleet to-day is more than six times as extensive as all the combined steamer fleets of Hull thirty years ago. The growth of this

firm's operations has been one of the most remarkable features in the modern shipping trade. The late Mr. Thomas Wilson was the original founder of the concern, and in partnership with Mr. Beckinton and Messrs. Hudson did much pioneering on behalf of the Hull steamer traffic some half a century ago, when the population of the port was not more than one third of what it is at the present time. The iron trade was one of the firm's specialities, their vessels sailing with the valuable metal to various continental ports. Before steamers were largely introduced, Messrs. Wilson, Hudson & Co. had four sailing ships running between Hull and Gothenburg — the Patriot, the Ivanhoe, the Wave, and the Susan— and had vessels plying also to Dunkirk. When it became evident, however, that steam was to be the ruling power in the navigation of the seas, Messrs. Wilson & Co. lost no time in availing themselves of its advantages. On the Gothenburg line they placed three paddle steamers to begin with—the Superb, the Innisfail, and the St. George—which proved so profitable that the firm speedily set themselves to the work of enlarging their steamer fleet. Mr.

Beckinton and Mr. Hudson had now retired from the firm, and Mr. David Wilson had been made a partner. Thenceforward the style of the firm became Thomas Wilson, Sons & Co., and no further alteration has been made therein. In or about 1850 the Courier and the Scandinavian steamers were built and added to the Swedish line. From that time to the present, we believe, Messrs. Wilson's vessels have been intrusted with the conveyance of the royal mails between Hull and Sweden. During the period of the Crimean war, some interruption naturally occurred to the running of steamers between English ports and Russia, and Messrs. Wilson, who had put on steamers between Hull, Stettin, St. Petersburg, and Riga but a short time previous to the commencement of hostilities, had to suspend operations in that part of the world for awhile. They were strengthening their hold in other directions, however, and from year to year built fresh ships and opened up fresh routes with a rapidity that said much for their foresight and enterprise, while affording good testimony of the large increase of trade between England and other nations.

In the year 1867 the then senior partner, Mr. David Wilson, retired, since which time the present proprietors, Mr. Charles Wilson and Mr. Arthur Wilson, have had the entire control of the ever-extending affairs of this eminent shipping firm. Sometimes accident has led to a sudden development of a new route. For instance, during the Franco-German war the trade to the Prussian Baltic ports was suspended altogether, the harbours being closed, and it became necessary to seek some other inlet for English goods to that part of the Continent. Messrs. Wilson, therefore, being prevented continuing to run their vessels to Stettin, resolved upon opening up an alternative route to Trieste. This led to the permanent adoption of the Trieste line of steamers, by means of which the traffic between Sicily and the Adriatic and Hull came to be fully established, no change being made on this line on the resumption of the Stettin trade. A line of steamers to Norway was shortly afterwards started, and some especially fine vessels were put on for regular communication with Constantinople and Odessa. Nor did the firm's efforts stop there. They subsequently established

lines to Hull, Boston, and New York; and from Newcastle and London they regularly despatch steamers to Dantzic, Riga, Christiansand, Christiania, Bombay, Colombo, Madras, and Calcutta. They have likewise a line between Liverpool and St. Petersburg. In all, Messrs. Thomas Wilson, Sons & Co. have 58 steamers engaged in the carrying trades, many of the vessels being of large size and fitted up in the most complete manner, being amongst the best-appointed vessels afloat. A strong accession to the Wilson fleet was gained a year or two ago by the purchase of the steamers and business of the old-established shipping firm of Brownlow, Marsdin & Co. The vessels thus transferred were seven in number, and included the Marsdin, the Tiger, the Panther, the Zebra, and the Falcon, it being Messrs. Brownlow, Marsdin & Co.'s rule to give their ships names from the zoological world, as it has been the rule with Messrs. Wilson to have names ending with the vowel "o" for the most part.

The following is a list of the various steamers now owned by Messrs. Wilson, with their tonnage:

In the North Sea and Lower Baltic trades they have engaged the—

	TONS		TONS
Albano	1100	Panther	1050
Angelo	1500	Tiger	850
Cameo	1280	Flamingo	850
Domino	750	Kelso	1350
Hero	850	Leo	1350
Orlando	1500	Milo	1180
Rollo	1500	Nero	1350
Romeo	1750	Otto	1150
Tasso	450	Pacific	850
Bravo	1180	Zebra	640
Cato	1250	Falcon	480
Fido	1250	Argo	750
Gozo	1280	Juno	1200
Humber	750		

In the Upper Baltic, Mediterranean, Adriatic, Black Sea, and Indian trades, the undermentioned twenty-one steamers are employed:

	TONS		TONS
Kovno	2350	Rinaldo	2200
Cairo	2350	Sappho	1550
Draco	2400	Thomas Wilson	2000
Grodno	2350	Xantho	2400
Calypso	1750	Yeddo	2400
Como	2000	Marsdin	1875
Dido	1700	Silvio	1700
Erato	2000	Gitano	1780
Hidalgo	2000	Borodino	1870
Palermo	2100	Toledo	2300
Quito	2000		

And in the American trades the following splendid steamers are kept constantly crossing and recrossing the Atlantic:

	TONS		TONS
Othello	3000	Lepanto	3000
Otranto	3000	Rialto	2900
Sorrento	2900	Bassano	2400
Salerno	2800	Romano	3800
Marengo	2900	Galilro	4200

The frequency with which one or the other

of this magnificent fleet of fifty-eight ocean steamers passes from the Humber will be best indicated by a reference to the various lines and their regulations as to sailing. From Hull to Hamburg, and *vice versâ*, Messrs. Wilson despatch steamers every Tuesday, from Hull to Antwerp every Saturday, and to Ghent every Wednesday, and from Hull to Dunkirk every Saturday. The two fine steamers, the Romeo, and the Orlando, are devoted exclusively to the Gothenburg traffic, and carry the royal Swedish mails, the voyage being made once a week, one vessel leaving Hull at half-past four every Saturday morning, and another taking its departure from Gothenburg every Friday. From Hull to Christiansand and Christiania trips are also made once a week, the Angelo and the Rollo being engaged in this traffic. The line to Stavanger and Bergen is maintained by the Domino, which leaves Hull every Tuesday. The Hero and Tasso perform the voyage between Hull and Drontheim every Thursday. From Hull to Stettin steamers depart every Saturday during the entire season open to navigation, making calls at Copenhagen. Then there are vessels to

Danzig and Riga weekly, as well as from Hull to Cronstadt and St. Petersburg. For Constantinople and Odessa the departures are necessarily less frequent, a steamer being despatched to those ports about once every three weeks. Steamers are sent to the Mediterranean and Adriatic ports frequently also, Naples, Palermo, Messina, Catania, Trieste, Venice, Fiume, and Bari being the ports generally proceeded to in these voyages, although, when inducement offers, the route is extended to other ports of Italy, Sicily, and Spain. Messrs. Wilson's Atlantic steamers sail from Hull to New York every week, calling at Boston when required. From Newcastle the firm despatch vessels weekly to Stettin and to Riga; and from London have regular communication with Christiansand and Christiania, Riga, Libau, &c. Monthly sailings are also made by Messrs. Wilson's steamers between Hull and Bombay. Indeed, the Humber fleet is known all over the world, and the commerce of this country has been greatly assisted by the rapid and effective intercourse which Messrs. Wilson have for so many years maintained with this country and the important

foreign ports to which they trade. Their captains include some of the best-known men who have sailed from Hull during the present generation. Amongst them may be mentioned such able veterans of the ocean as Soulsby, Abbott, Dossor, Langlands, Johnson, Watson, Roach, Mills, Todd, Owen, Newman, &c.—names which will call up interesting recollections in the minds of those who are accustomed to sail the northern seas. The Wilsons have always recognised the importance of efficient service, and in the equipment of their vessels and the appointing of experienced and capable men as commanding spirits have done much to insure the great success which has attended their undertakings.

A glance at the offices of the firm and their surroundings affords one a pretty correct inkling of the vast operations in which Messrs. Thomas Wilson & Sons are engaged. The offices are situated at the corner of Kingston Street and Commercial Road, Hull, in convenient proximity to the Albert Railway and Humber Docks. Very palatial and commanding are these same offices, forming altogether perhaps the largest and most suitably-arranged steam-shipping offices

in the United Kingdom. The general office is an exceedingly large and lofty room, containing eight separate departments for export and two for import business, with accommodation for the Marine Superintendent and his assistants, and the passenger insurance and postal departments. Separate rooms are provided for the head officials, and private rooms for the managers and principals. There is likewise a commodious dining-room, with housekeeper's apartments, kitchen, clerks' tea room, and store-rooms in close contiguity; while adjoining the building are stabling, coach-house, &c., together with large stores and offices for the storekeeper and his assistants.

There is much evidence of the outer world in and around these offices—pictures of steamers in full sail, with wind and tide very much in their favour; eye-catching announcements of ship-departures, in which far-off countries and ports are forcibly suggested to the mind; glimpses of ancient mariners, customs officers, people waiting for ships to arrive, people waiting for ships to sail, porters hurrying hither and thither with gigantic burdens; and, above all, the sense

and scent of the salt brine come in with the breeze, and one's heart is set longing for a trip upon the ocean. Tall masts are glistening in the sun, nodding their heads in response to the undulations of the waves, and here and there in the distance rises a column of smoke, indicating the setting forth of some huge steamer that has been charged to the full with heavy freight. Only a short time ago a crowd of loungers gathered in the region of the docks to witness a trial-trip, which was being made down the Humber by the latest addition to the Wilson line of steamers. The new vessel was the Romeo, which had been built by Earle's Shipbuilding and Engineering Company for Messrs. Thomas Wilson, Sons & Co. to meet the increasing requirements of the trade between Hull and Gothenburg. The new steamer, indeed, has some claim to the regard of the people of Hull; for it is the latest sign they have had afforded to them of the fact that the shipping trade of the port is increasing, and that their chief firm of shipowners are determined to keep abreast with the times in the adoption of all modern improvements. The Romeo will be the fastest

steamer sailing from Hull. She has a length of 275 feet between perpendiculars, a breadth of beam of 34 feet 6 inches, and a depth of hold of 20 feet. The vessel is of exceptionally strong build, having six water-tight compartments and an iron upper deck, sheathed with wood. "She is rigged as a three-masted fore and aft schooner," says an authority, "with iron pole masts, and she looks exceedingly well upon the water. Her deck-houses amidships being of varnished teak, with a teak rail all round her poop, she presents a very handsome appearance on deck. All that steam can be made to do on board ship has been accomplished on board the Romeo, from setting the sails to steering the vessel and heaving up the anchor." The accommodation for the yearly increasing number of passengers by this route is of a high-class description, and will compare favourably with that provided on the great Atlantic steamers. The entire breadth of the steamer in her widest part is taken up with the saloon, which is fitted in a most elegant and comfortable manner, with sofas upholstered in green velvet. The woodwork is a combination of mahogany, satin-

wood, and maple, all finished in the highest style of ship decoration. Between decks a large space has been set apart for the accommodation of emigrants, provision being made for about 1,000. A considerable number of emigrants leave Gothenburg every year for western lands, going by way of Hull. The entire vessel is lighted with gas—saloons, cabins, engine-rooms, and 'tween decks. Most of the steamers put to sea by Messrs. Thomas Wilson, Sons & Co., during the last few years, have been built by Earle's Shipbuilding and Engineering Company, who have earned a great reputation among English ship-builders, having launched many notable vessels at one time and another, including ships of war for the British and other Governments, steam-yachts for the late Czar, and large passenger ships for the Atlantic lines. Since then Earle's Co. have built for Messrs Wilson the splendid passenger steamer Juno for their Hamburg trade, and she is magnificently fitted up, and being very fast, is the favourite steamer in the trade. There have also been added to their fleet four fine steel steamers for Baltic and Mediterranean trades

within the last twelve months, and are now building another.

It says much for the energy and enterprise of the present proprietors of the leading firm of Hull shipowners that they have been able to work their business into the proud position of being the largest private shipowning concern in the world, the one or two firms which formerly equalled them in extent of business having been converted into limited liability companies Mr. Charles Henry Wilson, the senior partner, has represented Hull in Parliament since the general election of 1874. In the public affairs of the port he has always evinced a warm interest. In 1870 he served the office of Sheriff of Hull. He is a magistrate for the East Riding of Yorkshire, also chairman of the Hull Orphan Asylum, and both he and his brother are liberal supporters of the local charities and institutions. In 1878 Mr. C. H. Wilson became the owner of Warter Priory, which he purchased from Lord Muncaster. This charming property comprises, in addition to the noble mansion, an estate of 8,400 acres, including some of the loveliest scenery in Yorkshire. In commercial and shipping

matters, Mr. C. H. Wilson is considered a high authority in the House of Commons, and in the work of committees he frequently renders valuable assistance in forwarding practical legislation. He is greatly respected in the shipping world as a man of shrewd common-sense views; his espousal of any movement being considered an assurance of its success.

Mr. Arthur Wilson, the younger partner, resides at Tranby Croft, and not only is he known for his sterling business qualities, but in the capacity of county gentlemen fills a post of honour and responsibility. He is an earnest patron of the sports of the field, and is the present Master of the Holderness Hounds. Referring to Mr. Arthur Wilson's acceptance of this office, so important from a sportsman's point of view, a writer in *The County Gentleman* recently said: "No day is too rough, no distance too far, to stop his going out; no time in the afternoon too late, so long as there is light for this truly keen sportsman to draw; and Mr. Wilson's sole endeavour is to show sport and get his hounds well away, an endeavour in which he is well supported by a keen but thoroughly sportsman-

like field. A genial, kind-hearted, and unselfish man, unsparing of himself, his horses, or his hounds."

Fortunate has it been for Hull that two such able, public-spirited gentlemen as Messrs. C. H. & Arthur Wilson have, during the last few years, had the management of the leading shipping house of the port; and when the town obtains the additional railway facilities that will result from the opening up of the Hull and Barnsley Railway, a further impetus will be given to the shipping trade of the Humber. Hull has been somewhat at a disadvantage hitherto in regard to its railway communication, some of the chief centres of industry in the North having been very inconveniently placed in regard to direct transit to and from the port. The Wilsons have, however, raised their fleet of steamers to such a high standard of efficiency, and have so thoroughly adapted themselves to the progress and demands of the time, that they may be said to have prepared the way very completely for any future development of trade that Hull may experience.

The Hull shipping trade has, despite the

general advancement which has been made, undergone not a few vicissitudes, and some firms of note have disappeared from contemporary shipping annals altogether. Messrs. Brownlow, Marsden, & Co., as we have seen, sold their ships to Messrs. Wilson, after having been prominently connected with the port for sixty years or more, in one way and another. Another name ought also to be mentioned in connection with this, that of Mr. Zachariah C. Pearson, formerly Mayor of the town. Mr. Pearson, it seems, was the owner of one or two steamers which he kept employed in various ways at a good profit, running to no particular ports, but adapting themselves to anything that might turn up. In an evil hour, however, Mr. Pearson got into the toils of Messrs. Overend, Gurney & Co. He was persuaded to purchase a fleet of six steamers from the Greek and Oriental Steam Navigation Company, Messrs. Overend, Gurney & Co. taking Mr. Pearson's acceptances for the entire purchase money. "Here he (Mr. Pearson) was," writes Mr. S. Xenos, in that book of his in which he so fully exposed the iniquities of the Overend, Gurney & Co. management, "at the head of an armada far larger than he could

find work for, pay, or manage. And the advice on which these changes were made was given for the sake of securing a few thousand pounds' commission. It was not long before Mr. Pearson saw his real position. He determined upon a *coup de main* that would at once seal his fate. The American war was at its height; he resolved to run the blockade of the southern ports. It was a mad project. Some of the vessels were too small to cross the Atlantic; others were of too mediocre steam-power; and some others, when loaded, drew more than seventeen feet of water. Some of the vessels were stranded, others were captured, and poor Pearson—driven to bankruptcy—was stripped of his last penny by his pretended benefactors."

Since those days we have settled upon a period of greater commercial calm, and Hull has known less of the fever and the fret of undertakings of mere adventure. The steady growth of a business like that of Messrs. Thomas Wilson, Sons & Co. is one of the best evidences of trade stability that the "Third Port" can possess.

We have to acknowledge our obligations to a little work, entitled *Hull, and its Ships and*

Shipowners, reprinted from the *Eastern Morning News*, for many of the particulars here given of the past history of the port and its shipping trade.

MESSRS. BASS AND THE BURTON BREWERIES.

MESSRS. BASS AND THE BURTON BREWERIES.

IT is no extravagant assertion to say that throughout the world there is no name more familiar than that of Bass. A household word amongst Englishmen, it is one of the first words in the vocabulary of foreigners whose knowledge of the English language is of the most rudimentary description. And while the cognomen of the great Burton brewer is of cosmopolitan celebrity, there is no geometrical figure so well known as the vermilion triangle which is the trademark on his bottles. It is as familiar to the eye as Her Majesty's visage on the postage stamps. It would, indeed, be a difficult task to say in what part of the earth that vivid triangle does not gladden the heart of man. Thackeray contended with great humour that far as the meteor flag of England

may have carried the glory of this country, the fame of her bitter beer has gone farther still. The word "Bass" is known in places where such "names to conjure with" as Beaconsfield, Gladstone, Bright, Tennyson, and Dickens would be unintelligible sounds. To what corner of the habitable world has not "Bass" penetrated? He has circumnavigated the world more completely than Captain Cook. The sign of the vermilion triangle is sure evidence of civilisation. That trade-mark has travelled "from China to Peru," "from Greenland's icy mountains to India's coral strand." There it is in Paris or St. Petersburg, Madrid or Moscow, Berlin or Bombay, Brussels or Baalbec, New York or Yokohama, San Francisco or San Stefano, Teheran or Trichinopoly. You meet the refreshing label up among Alpine glaciers and down in the *cafés* of the Bosphorus, among the gondolas of the Grand Canal at Venice, the dahabeahs at the first cataract on the Nile, and the junks of China. It has reached "the Great Lone Land." It has refreshed the "mighty hunter" camping out in Wyoming, Montana, or Dakotah. It sparkles before the camp-fire of the Anglo-Saxon adven-

turer out in the wilds of the Far West, and its happy aroma is grateful to the settler in the Australian bush. When the North Pole is discovered, "Bass" will be found there, cool and delicious.

Mr. George Augustus Sala, writing recently of *Paris Herself Again*, insists that the French people are rapidly becoming a nation of English beer-drinkers. He says: "Bavarian beer, for political reasons, they resolutely refuse to drink; and similar causes render them averse from partaking of the once-beloved beverage of Strasbourg. Their own beer, from Nancy and other parts of the east of France, is very bad; and I hold that Burton-on-Trent has a very bright future before it, and, so far as supplying the French market is concerned, might eventually beat Vienna—great as has been the name of Dreher—out of the field. 'Cerevisia de Palyaly,' as the Spaniards call Bass's pale ale, is making great way in all the towns of Andalusia, and all the first-rate *cafés* in Paris sell Allsopp, either bottled or on draught."

In countries where wine is cheap and "Bass" dear, "Bass" is preferred; and if in England

"Bass" were the price of "Heidsieck," "Mumm," or "Moët & Chandon," and these the price of "Bass," then the Burton beer would prevail over the champagne. Farquhar, in the *Beaux' Stratagem*, makes Boniface say, as he pours out a glass of his Burton beer, "Smooth as oil, sweet as milk, clear as amber, and strong as brandy:" "fancy it Burgundy—only fancy it—and 'tis worth ten shillings a quart." Even a higher value was placed upon the wine of malt by the Oxford "Union," where it was once gravely deliberated which had conferred the greatest boon on the human race—the printing-press or Bass's beer. The debate was conducted with great ability, and on the division taking place "Bass" was triumphant. Beer is a truly national drink; "Git ma my aäle," says Tennyson's "Northern Farmer;" and he only expresses the request of Englishmen everywhere. Give the Frenchman his *absinthe* and his *vin ordinaire*, the Dutchman his schnapps, the Spaniard his sugar-and-water, the Russian his *vodki*, the Oriental his sherbet and his coffee, the American his iced cobblers, but give the Englishman his beer. "To rob a working man of his beer" is, in the eyes of the English artisan, an

act of the deepest turpitude. A draught of "Bass" is popularly supposed and currently believed to have saved the life of his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales during the terrible crisis of that deadly fever when all the country watched with affectionate solicitude by his bedside; Dr. Tanner interested himself in "Bass" as soon as he left off fasting and began feasting; beef and beer are somehow bound up with old England's greatness, and are associated with the battle of Waterloo, the conquest of India, and the exploration of the world.

The beer-trade is a great industry, seeing that the number of brewers in the United Kingdom is registered at 22,278; but Mr. M. T. Bass stands at the top of it. Mr. Gladstone, in his Budget speech of June 10th, 1880, addressing himself to the vexed question of the malt-tax, spoke of Mr. Bass as one who, "both from his ability and his long experience and skill in that branch of industry, stood at its head," and he alluded to the great brewery at Burton as "a permanent and respected institution of the country." It may, however, be remarked in parenthesis that the recent financial proposals of the Government

have not altogether the countenance of the firm the Premier so pointedly eulogised; for Mr. Arthur Bass, M. P., presiding at the anniversary festival of the Licensed Victuallers' School shortly afterwards, is reported to have said that he thought their result would be to make beer dearer, and to stimulate its manufacture from an inferior article. Mr. Gladstone at a subsequent date, in the discussion on the Customs and Inland Revenue Bill, said the beer trade had its high priests and its hierarchy. Sir Wilfrid Lawson, therefore, with his customary facetiousness, christened the well-known member for Derby "Archbishop Bass."

The history of Messrs. Bass & Co. as Burton brewers does not reach back much beyond a period of a hundred years; but the fame of Burton ale is as ancient as the reputation of Sheffield steel, of which we read in Chaucer. The archæology of ale would make an interesting work: but to record all that antiquarians and historians and poets have said on the subject would demand the space occupied by Alison's *History of Europe*, or as many volumes as the *Encyclopædia Britannica*. The Egyptians are

claimed as the originators of ale. Humorous cynicism has surmised that it was for the beer-pots as well as the flesh-pots of the Pharaohs that the parched Israelites sighed in the thirsty desert. We have not traced back Mr. Bass's genealogy, for he is a living reminiscence himself, a Nestor belonging to the last century, carrying his experience to the eighth decade of this century. But, remembering that the Egyptians were the inventors of beer, it has been assumed that the Burton brewer descended from Bassareus, the Egyptian god, to whom oblations of wine of barley were periodically offered. And in support of this natural supposition may be cited the Egyptian pyramid in red—the coat-of-arms worn by "Bass" at the present day. Bringing the history of beer down to English annals, we find that the Anglo-Saxons and the Danes drank beer at their religious festivals, and it was provided at the banquets of their kings. "Whitsun ales" are bound up with the ecclesiastical history of "Merrie England." At Haddon Hall, in the mighty mediæval days, beer formed one of the great hospitalities of the baronial castle; and in the wainscoting of the banqueting-hall to this

day is to be observed by the curious the iron ring fixed there in the "good old days" for the wrists of teetotalers, who were thus suspended while the potent ale the abstainers abjured was poured down their sleeves. Burton beer figures early in our "rough island story." Ben Jonson sings the praises of Burton ale; while its panegyric by John Taylor, the Water-Poet, is one of the quaintest conceits in English composition. And while Shakespeare pronounces "a quart of ale a dish fit for a king," we find he puts in the "fiery Hotspur's" mouth the opinion that the Burton district is the best in all England for a flagon of good beer, and makes Percy express his determination to keep it for himself, though he had to turn the Trent from its course to obtain it. It is plain, therefore, that the product of Burton was famous in Shakespeare's time; and we have historic evidence that Mary Queen of Scots was solaced in her solitary confinement at Tutbury Castle by draughts of Burton beer. Sir Walter Scott introduces the connection between Burton and beer in the pages of *Ivanhoe;* but the Staffordshire mash was celebrated before the time of Richard Cœur de

Lion, for the Saxon kings built a bridge over the Trent at Burton, to give their subjects facilities to drink the beer of the place. Indeed, so liberally were these facilities employed, that in the twelfth century it was found necessary to raise the parapets of this bridge, in consequence of the frequent accidents that happened to people passing over it on their return journey. Old Dr. Plot, in his Staffordshire history, mentions Burton as the first and last place in which he had seen maltsters dry their barley in the sun in the open streets. What a revelation would meet the quaint gossiping writer's eyes could he but behold the Burton of to-day!

It was not, however, until the beginning of the eighteenth century that brewing as a distinct trade was begun in Burton. The first common brewer was a Benjamin Printon. When he commenced the business he employed only three men. But he may be said to have founded the export trade of Burton. He sent out by waggons his barrels to distant towns. The fame of Burton beer spread. The demand for it induced new men to follow his enterprise. Among these was William Bass. He was a Burton carrier. Im-

pressed with the increasing traffic in beer carried by his own teams, he determined to brew and transport his own brewings, instead of conveying those of other traders. This was in 1777. The honest old carrier's shrewd decision founded the largest and most famous firm in the world. William Bass was the grandfather of Michael Thomas Bass, the present head of the Burton business. London, however, only took a barrel or two in those days. It was sold at a hostelry in Gray's Inn Lane, called the Peacock. St. Petersburg was a great market for the Burton brewings long before the English metropolis. Orders from the Russian capital exceeded 600 hogsheads at a time; but they were for a strong dark liquid, quite unlike the present pale tonic for which Bass and Co. are celebrated. The St. Petersburg traffic taking precedence of that of London is accounted for by the expense of inland communication; while the Trent navigation gave direct access *viâ* Gainsborough to Hull, the English port for Baltic captains. The trade with Russia had grown to a large and important business when, in 1822, a despotic tariff imposed by the Czar's Government was so heavy as to be practically prohibitory. At

first sight, the imposition of these heavy import duties seemed to augur unfavourably for the future of Burton. On the other hand, they proved the foundation of Burton's fortune. Had they been repealed at the petition of the Burton brewers, Burton would probably have been a big village brewing the heavy heady dark Muscovite beverage to this day. But the action of Russia not only led to the popular introduction of Burton beer into London and the south of England, but to the establishment of that trade with the East, which marked an era of prosperity, the mercantile magnitude of which could not have been conceived by William Bass, even had he been endowed with an Oriental imagination, inspired by his own "juice benignant." The history of that important departure is worthy of recital.

At that period the whole of the Indian market was monopolised by one house, the London firm of Abbott & Hodgson, of the Old Bow Brewery. Hodgson's India pale ale had established itself in the East. India was dependent on Hodgson ; but he had just then given offence to some of the East Indian merchants. About this time, Bass's

beer had been introduced into London, and a gentleman in the East India Company's service suggested to Mr. Bass that he should brew a special beer for the Indian market; not the strong sweet brown ale synonymous with Burton; but a beer suited for consumption under a tropical sun. Mr. Bass tasted Hodgson's produce. He was of opinion that he could not only brew it, but that he could improve upon it. He brought practical determination to the question, and a series of scientific experiments were entered upon. A beer had to be produced which should bear the atmospheric vicissitudes of a voyage round the Cape, and that should, when unloaded in India, be as clear as amber, sparkling as champagne, pleasant to the palate, and wholesome to the liver. Malt had to be dried a different colour, and the treatment of hops rose to quite a fine art. The experiments were numerous and costly; but the result was a triumph. It was Bass's bitter beer. The first consignment sent out to India produced a most favourable impression. Its popularity was instantaneous. When the next cargo followed the success was confirmed and complete. Hodgson, with his moneyed monopoly and his

Eastern standing of half a century, could not withstand the competition with Burton. The price of his produce fell, and Bass steadily progressed in favour, until his name became a household word in India. This invention of bitter beer was the key to a splendid fortune. The trade to-day between the Burton firm and the Eastern Empire is one of colossal proportions.

It was what we call chance that introduced Bass to India. Chance brought him into notice at Liverpool. Until 1827 Messrs. Bass appear to have exported all their bitter beer for that Indian consumption for which it was originally manufactured. In that year, however, an accident was the agency for introducing it to another constituency. A cargo of 300 hogsheads of bitter beer was wrecked in the Irish Channel. The salvage was landed at Liverpool. It was disposed of for the benefit of the underwriters; but instead of being reshipped to Calcutta, it was drunk at the great Lancashire port. It gained instant favour, and the north-west of England and Ireland became a great market for "Bass." In the Liverpool of to-day, at the Gill Street stores of Messrs. Ihlers & Bell—the

great exporters—may be seen at a time 2,000 butts of Bass, each butt holding 108 gallons, and each worth 10*l.*; while at the North End stores of the same firm there are 3,000 butts. Messrs. Ihlers & Bell send to the Brazils, Pernambuco, and other distant markets about 5,000,000 quart bottles a year, and pay Bass & Co. over 60,000*l.* a year. Several bottling firms in London and Scotland pay the Burton firm similar sums for export only.

It was not until the Exhibition year of 1851 that Bass acquired an important hold upon London. The London brewers considered their position impregnable; but in that year of all nations, Mr. Bass took up a place in the metropolis which has grown stronger every succeeding year. An Englishman's heart is reached through his stomach, and it was at the refreshment department of the world's show that Bass gained the affections of London. Messrs. Masters & Younghusband divided the commissariat at the Crystal Palace. With both firms Mr. Michael Thomas Bass obtained permission to lay on his bitter beer in draught. All the world and his wife were tempted, they tasted, and were conquered; and

if the Prince Consort's Universal Exhibition did not introduce the period of universal peace, it brought about universal bitter beer. It was just about this time, when "Bass" was achieving a wide popularity, that a deadly blow was aimed at its reputation. Seven-and-twenty years suffice to cover many matters of moment with the cold mantle of oblivion, and the great pale-ale controversy of 1852—which was more bitter than the bitterest beer—is well-nigh forgotten. It owed its origin to an allegation made in a series of lectures on hygiene, by M. Payen, delivered at the Conservatoire des Arts et Métiers at Paris, that the bitter of bitter beer was not derived from hops, but owed its presence to strychnine. The English medical press gave currency and comment to this serious statement, which met with emphatic denial by the Burton brewers. The public was alarmed, and M. Payen persisted that the French Government were aware that large quantities of strychnine were made in Paris, and that its pernicious use did not prevail there, but that the poison was exported to England in order to fabricate bitter beer. The Burton brewers triumphantly refuted the

calumny, and showed its base untruth in a most signal manner. They called in the services of a commission of acute and scientific investigators. The published report of these experts (who submitted to severe analysis bitter beer, brewed before M. Payen's accusation, in bottle and barrel, and from wholesale and retail places all over the country) states that the result of the chemical and microscopical examination of forty samples of bitter beer, pale ale, or India pale ale, brewed by Messrs. Bass & Co., and by Messrs. Allsopp & Sons, and obtained under circumstances which precluded the possibility of error, fallacy, or of preparation for the selection, is in every case recorded as follows: "*Analysis*. The produce of malt and hops, and the constituents pure spring-water; not any other ingredient, either organic or inorganic." The commissioners added other important evidence as to the quality of these beers: "First, that the bitter beers of Messrs. Bass & Co., and of Messrs. Allsopp & Sons, contain only a moderate amount of alcohol; and, secondly, that they contain an unusually large quantity of bitter extract, consisting of the extract of hops." They concluded

the report of their scientific investigations by adding a recommendation of bitter beer, which, considering their high position as chemists, pharmaceutists, surgeons, and physicians, is worthy of quotation in these pages. They write:

"From the pure and wholesome nature of the ingredients employed, the moderate proportion of alcohol present, and the very considerable quantity of aromatic anodyne bitter, derived from hops, contained in these beers, they tend to preserve the tone and vigour of the stomach, and conduce to the restoration of the health of that organ when in a state of weakness or debility.

"These bitter beers differ from all other preparations of malt, in containing a smaller amount of extractive matter, thus being less viscid and saccharine, and consequently more easy of digestion; they resemble, indeed, from their lightness, a wine of malt, rather than an ordinary fermented infusion; and it is very satisfactory to find that a beverage of such general consumption is entirely free from every kind of impurity.

"The admirers, therefore, of the bitter beer

manufactured by the celebrated brewers we have mentioned may enjoy with advantage this their favourite beverage. The report so commonly circulated, that it contained a deadly poison, was a severe reflection on the sagacity and judgment of the members of the medical profession; because it is perfectly well known that bitter beer or pale ale first acquired, and afterwards maintained, its general celebrity in consequence of the universal recommendation of our profession—a recommendation which is now proved to have had the best possible foundation."

This is the age of adulteration, and it is not surprising that the British public received a scare from the smart Parisian's novel alarm of a "French Invasion." But it was impossible for an assertion so mendacious and mischievous to receive a moment's credence from people who knew the mercantile character of Bass & Co. In the preparation of their bitter beer, scrupulous pains are employed in getting the finest malt, the best hops, and the purest water; the greatest cleanliness and the most exact skill are directed to the process of brewing; while the

reputation and wealth of the firm have been altogether built up by an unswerving and undeviating honesty, and a constant and conscientious determination to manufacture the most acceptable article that a combination of capital and chemistry can produce.

So much for the history of bitter beer. Something now as to the breweries of Messrs. Bass and Co. Brewing is the staple industry of Burton-upon-Trent. There is nothing particularly picturesque about the place. It lies in a flat position on the eastern border of Staffordshire. Its many chimneys and its monotonous warehouses, indeed, make a very commonplace town, although the artist might find a pretty "bit" in the grey old Trent bridge, with its thirty-six arches of proud antiquity, the broad broken river, and the wooded slopes of Stapenhill rising on the opposite bank. The railway position of the town is, however, a central one; and while the Midland Company is the principal carrier, three other railway systems—the London and North-Western, the Great Northern, and the North Staffordshire—run into the breweries. Burton is indeed a curious congeries of railway

lines—"a mighty maze, but not without a plan." The brewery lines cross the principal streets and cut up the borough into every denomination of geometrical shapes. Fussy little locomotives, with trains of barrels behind them, are puffing everywhere. Bass & Co. have, indeed, twelve miles of railway on their own premises, and a working arrangement with the Midland Company over seven miles of their branches. The firm are customers to the Midland Railway to the extent of some thousands of pounds annually. In one year, that ending June 30th, 1878, the firm paid the railway and canal companies and other carriers in that period the sum of 180,102*l.* for carriage alone. Some idea of the magnitude of their traffic to London alone may be gathered from the fact that the ale-stores of Messrs. Bass outside St. Pancras Station cover three floors, each two acres in extent, and each containing 30,000 barrels of 36 gallons of ale. Besides this, Bass and Co. have a large export bottling store under the Midland Goods Depôt at St. Pancras, with accommodation for 8,000 butts, together with export stores at Poplar for the continental business.

The breweries of Messrs. Bass are spread all over Burton. They have grown with the trade from the smallest of premises to quite a town of themselves. How great has been that development may be best inferred from the statement that the amount of business transacted during the whole of one year, 1827, by the father of Mr. Michael Thomas Bass, was not more than is now achieved by his son's firm in three days! The area of the father's brewery was that of a moderately large garden; that of the son's occupies freehold business premises extending over forty-five acres, of the value of a quarter of a million sterling, and more than 100 acres of leasehold property. Then steam-power was unknown in the place; now Bass and Co.'s brewery has thirty-two steam-engines daily at work, nine locomotives, two portable engines, and 100 powerful cart-horses. Mechanical and scientific appliances have largely minimised manual labour, yet the Burton staff number nearly 3,000; while in addition hundreds are required to manage their places of business all over the United Kingdom. The father produced comparatively only a few barrels per week, delivered by his own carts;

the son, in the course of a brewing season, sends out by train and ship one million barrels, and the average annual amount of his business is assessed at 2,400,000*l.* In malt tax and license-duty Bass & Co. pay in one year 286,000*l.* Professor Leone Levi, in a calculation drawn up by him in March, 1871, states that the yearly revenue derived from beer and British and foreign wines and spirits amounts to about twenty-eight millions sterling, or considerably more than a third of the whole annual national revenue, towards which the firm of Bass & Co. pay upwards of 780*l.* per day.

The art of brewing may be divided into three processes: the manufacture of malt, the production of the fermentable fluid called "wort," and the conversion of "wort" into beer. Messrs. Bass & Co. are their own maltsters. The firm have thirty-three malting establishments at Burton; while they possess branch maltings at Retford and Lincoln. Sir John Barleycorn, who acts as our cicerone to the Burton breweries, takes us to the Shobnall maltings which are the latest and largest of the buildings devoted to this branch of the trade. They form of them-

selves seven complete malt-houses in one block of buildings. In the upper story of one of the houses Sir John Barleycorn points out a trifling heap of over 5,000 quarters of barley. He tells us that an average yearly brewing of Messrs. Bass's demands 300,000 quarters of malt —that is, over two million bushels; that an acre of land produces about thirty-two bushels of barley; and that close upon 70,000 acres are thus doing nothing else but growing barley for Bass & Co.'s beer. Another 3,000 acres are employed in growing the 36,000 cwt. of hops which are required for this annual maltage. In the hop storehouse 10,000 "pockets" of hops may be seen at one time. The market price of one "pocket" is 20*l.*, so that the value of hops alone in stock represents a capital of 200,000*l.* The process of malting requires a close attention to little things. First of all the grain is "blown"—a screening operation by means of which the inferior seeds and impurities are eliminated. Then it is steeped in water to a depth of six or seven inches. It remains in the cistern for some fifty hours. The "couch-frame" is the next transition of the germinating

barley, where it remains for twenty to thirty hours to swell; and the various stages through which it passes on its way to the kiln take up about ten days. Notice the exquisite cleanliness of the kiln-floors. The smooth-tiled area occupies an enormous superficial space; but the faintest defect in the cement jointing is at once marked with a white cross for instant remedy. When roasting has completed the malting process, the grain is screened and conveyed to the dry-malt store ready for mashing.

And this brings Sir John Barleycorn to the breweries proper. They comprise three great breweries: the Old, or "Red" Brewery; the Middle, or "White" Brewery; and the New, or "Blue" Brewery. They extend over three sides of a parallelogram broken by sheds, stores, offices, cooperages, malthouses, &c., all connected by railway lines. Burton owes its supreme position as the brewing centre of the world to its natural water-springs. These well-waters, submitted to exhaustive and repeated analysis, show a complete immunity from organic matter. Their chemical composition, however, contains an emphatic percentage of sulphate of lime, a

large proportion of the sulphates of potash and magnesia, and a considerable amount of carbonate of lime. The Burton well-water is palpably a hard water, and *à priori* would be considered bad water for brewing. But though hard at first, it really becomes a soft water, as contained in the beer. As an analysis which appeared in the columns of the *Lancet* shows, "in the course of boiling, the excess of carbonic acid in the water, by which the carbonates of lime and magnesia are dissolved, is expelled, and these salts are precipitated; while the alkaline phosphates present in malt have the power of decomposing and precipitating sulphate of lime, phosphate of lime, and a soluble alkaline sulphate being formed, the greater part of the phosphate of lime so formed is redissolved in the acid generated during fermentation. Thus the water from being at first hard becomes comparatively soft, and in this state is well suited for the extraction of the active properties of the malt and hops used in the manufacture of bitter beer." The chemical constitution of the Burton water explains also another circumstance connected with Burton

ales. The depurating power of the lime clarifies the beer, and renders it bright, transparent without the aid of "finings." The sulphate of lime is obtained from the gypseous deposits of certain strata of the district; and it has been computed that the average amount of gypsum derived from the water used in brewing 1,000 barrels of ale may be estimated at 250 pounds weight. The revenue estimate of the annual brew of Messrs. Bass & Co. is 1,000,000 barrels, so that firm are absorbers of 200,000,000 pounds of gypsum each year! The Artesian borings are 200 feet deep, and Sir John Barleycorn shows a pardonable pride in the powerful pumps.

We are now in the midst of the breweries. A network of railways. An atmosphere of ale. Barrels everywhere. Full casks and empty casks; thirty-six gallon casks and eighteen gallon casks. Casks are the masters of the situation. There they are being rolled from drays, or loaded into railway waggons. Trains of beer, drays of beer, with Titanic horses and drivers as rotund as the barrels. A brewer's horse with even a suspicion of ribs would be as great a natural curiosity as the dodo; while

a lean and gaunt brewer's drayman would be a *lusus naturæ* that Barnum might madly covet.

Now for the process of brewing. The malt, after being again submitted to a winnowing process, is conveyed to the rollers by a "Jacob's ladder"—an endless band, suggestive of "perpetual motion," with a series of small tin buckets attached to it, like a dredging machine. These cans load themselves at the lowest level and empty at the highest. Sir John Barleycorn speaks of the precautions that have to be observed against explosion in this process, as the malt-dust is highly combustible, being almost in a gaseous state. Then the malt is crushed between two iron cylinders with roughened surfaces, which revolve rapidly in diverse directions. Now slightly crushed, and rendered more ready to yield the saccharine matter to be extracted in the mash-tubs, the malt is conveyed by the agency of an Archimedian screw to the various hoppers, which are placed immediately over the mash-tubs. Such tubs! Compared with them, the traditional tun of Heidelberg is as a child's porringer. There is a whole series of these

megatherian vessels. Seven of them are on one floor of the Old Brewery, and about three times as many in the "White" and "Blue" Breweries, each capable of mashing sixty quarters of malt. Bigness, in fact, is the predominant impression Bass & Co.'s breweries give you. Everything is so Brobdingnagian in its proportions that there is danger of one's phrenological equilibrium suffering from the sudden development of the bump of wonder. When the mash-tubs have been supplied with a precisely measured quantity of water, heated to a temperature of from 140 to 170 degrees, the charged hoppers are opened. The malt descends into the mash-tuns, and the process of mashing begins. A revolving series of rakes, set on a central pivot, and called, in brewing parlance, "the porcupine," commences to beat up the entire mash until it attains the consistency of gruel. The mash then stands until the saccharine element of the malt has been thoroughly extracted. This operation takes from one to three hours. Anon the "sweet wort" is drawn off from the tub, and conveyed in pipes by powerful pumps to the "under-back,"

another Titanic receptacle, from which it is passed into the coppers, and when brought to boiling-point is mixed with the hops. The exhausted malt, now "grains," is let down a shaft to the floor below, whence it is carted away. Hops and malt having boiled together for some hours with a fierceness that suggests that the sweets are quarrelling with the bitters, and that makes the earth vibrate with its violence, the whole is then run off from the caldrons into the "hop backs," large open tanks with bottoms of perforated copper. In these the hops are separated from the "wort," which is now conducted by pipes to the coolers at the top of the building; while the hops are pressed by a hydraulic machine patented for the purpose, and subsequently disposed of for manure. The cooling-room may be likened to a lagoon of liquor, a lake of beer, a waveless tideless ocean of ale. From the refrigerators the "wort"—now a near approach to ale—is conducted to the fermenting squares. The process of fermentation takes up from two and a half to three days, and Sir John Barleycorn shows us a hundred squares on one floor holding about

fifty barrels each. A singular natural transmutation now takes place, and the quantity of carbonic gas given off is considerable. A better description of this mysterious change could not be given than one which appeared in the *Daily News*, and we avail ourselves of part of the account: "Hitherto the 'wort' has been a dull phlegmatic fluid, seemingly incapable of being stirred into animation. But the yeast soon alters its temperament. We see the process of active fermentation in a variety of different stages. In one square the 'wort' is sulking—the yeast has not yet stimulated it into briskness, and has only evolved on the surface a white-brownish froth. The contents of another square have thrown up a 'head' resembling a dingy iceberg; the surface of another is like snow that has lain a couple of days in a city churchyard. There is a pungent sweetish smell, not unpleasant, as we have it here with plenty of ventilation, but not a happy thing to encounter in the bottom of a well, or in the far interior of a coal-mine. It is the carbonic acid gas we smell, evolved in the destruction of the sugar and the formation of the

alcohol. A lighted candle held close to the surface of the fermentation burns blue for a second, and then goes out. I hold my face where the candle had been, and am right fain to withdraw it while as yet consciousness remains. In the 'squares' for the first time we recognise beer. It would be possible for a man to get drunk upon this mawkish loaded fluid, if he could bring himself to undergo the preliminary ordeal of swallowing what tastes so remarkably nasty. But let the fermentation be finished, and the cleansing be accomplished, and nastiness will no longer be the characteristic of the fluid."

This fermentation having proceeded to a sufficient extent, it is checked in the "cleansing" room. And in this chamber Domonie Sampson might have been forgiven for giving vent in his bewilderment to the expression "Prodigious!" On only one of a series of similar floors behold in one glance 1,248 casks, each capable of accommodating 160 gallons! The ale is run into these casks through the "union" pipes, and by a scientific arrangement these are kept constantly full, while the

ale continues to discharge its balm. The beer thus cleanses itself, and becomes perfectly bright, and ready to be let off into the barrels awaiting its reception. Each cask is filled to the bung; a handful of Kent hops is flung in to "feed the ale;" the bung is driven home; and the practice of the brewer's art is completed.

But Sir John Barleycorn has much more to show us. There is the laboratory, or experimental brewery, where skilful chemists are analysing water and making experiments: and the allowance store, where a liberal share of beer is allowed to each *employé* every day, thus putting him out of the reach of temptation in the way of surreptitious "tapping." There are few of the men who refuse the daily allowance of ale generously afforded by the firm. It is the custom of grocers to allow their apprentices the run of all the dainties in which they deal, giving them extravagant access to the fruits and candies; and they soon grow sick, and avoid the fruit for the remainder of their days. Confectioners are equally generous with their young assistants, who have a wild debauch

on tarts and sweets, and are surfeited for life. But with the lusty young brewer the surfeiting sensation never arrives. Not that brewers, as a class, are intemperate. Really no representation could be more remote from the truth. It is Macaulay who remarks that "the natives of wine countries are generally the most sober of mankind, and that in places where wine is a rarity drunkenness abounds. A northern army encamped on the Rhine or the Xeres finding themselves able to indulge without restraint, nothing is to be seen but intoxication. Soon, however, plenty teaches discretion; and, after wine has been for a few weeks their daily drink, they become even more temperate than they ever had been in their own country." Macaulay applies this liquor comparison to liberty, but it will equally illustrate the relation of Bass & Co.'s men to Bass & Co.'s beer.

We are now conducted to the store-rooms, which must be great, because while there is a demand for beer throughout the entire twelve months, the actual process of brewing can only be conducted during six months, or at the most seven months, of the year. The cellarage

covers acres of ground, and contains samples of ales and stouts of all prices. In one store into which we are introduced there are stocked some 120,000 barrels. Millions of gallons of beer are warehoused in these long low capacious rooms. Barrels to the right of us, barrels to the left of us, barrels in front of us, barrels behind us. Barrels everywhere, like the water round the fated phantom ship of Coleridge's *Ancient Mariner;* but here the resemblance ceases, since there are "many drops to drink." And as one is conducted through room after room in this vast arsenal of ale, one can scarcely refrain from hazarding a conjecture as to how many "drunks and disorderlies" and "drunks and incapables" these casks contain; although it has been wisely said that "the people of England are yearly becoming more sober, and that towards that result no one has contributed, or is contributing, more than Michael Thomas Bass, the biggest brewer of the best beer in the world."

The cooperage, together with the saw-mills, fitters' and other workshops, employs something like 500 hands, and gives one some idea of

the extent of Messrs. Bass's trade. The magnitude of the concern has been thus vividly realised by a previous writer, who says; "The firm uses as many as 60,000 railway trucks in the course of six months, and often as many as 370 trucks in a day, that, placed close together, would make a train one mile and 453 yards long; or would reach, say, from the Marble Arch, along the whole length of Oxford Street, to the beginning of Holborn. Mr. William Bass could possibly tell almost every one of the casks he had in use in business by headmark, or enter the whole of them on a page of his cask stock-book. What a tremendous page it would be that would receive the numbers of the casks belonging to the firm now! The stock of casks necessary to carry on the business consists of 46,901 butts, 159,608 hogsheads, 139,753 barrels, and 197,597 kilderkins, in all 543,869 casks. Concerning these numbers it is scarcely possible to convey an idea of what they really represent. We can only try. St. Peter's at Rome is 450 feet high; put on end, these casks would make 2,440 pillars as high as St. Peter's, and they would

make 3,300 pillars as high as St. Paul's, London. If they were laid end to end, starting from London in the direction of Manchester, they would overlap Manchester by more than ten miles."

Messrs. Bass & Co. sell their ale in casks. The bottle trade is a separate one. With so many gallons of bitter beer so many labels for bottles are issued. One year's issue of these labels amounts to over a hundred millions, and the printer's contract for the same is something considerable. To prevent the public being deceived by unscrupulous dealers, great pains are exercised by the Burton firm to detect a fraudulent use of the trade-mark. The chief difficulty, indeed, in their business is in pirated trade-marks and bad beer sold under imitations of their labels. It is said that Germany used to be a great culprit in these frauds, and Brussels was an extensive emporium for base Bass; but recent international treaties are leading to more honest dealing. Messrs. Bass & Co. are keenly jealous of their reputation. They will not dispose of their goods to traders who are not masters of the art of

bottling, or whose cellars are not favourable to keeping the beer in condition; while the pains that are taken at Burton to keep each barrel sweet and clean is one of the most striking experiences of a visit to the breweries.

A description of Messrs. Bass & Co.'s breweries without some personal reference to the head of the firm would be woefully incomplete. In this connection we may remark that the business of Messrs. Bass & Co. has, since March 1st, 1880, been carried on by a private company, registered under the name of Bass, Ratcliffe & Gretton (Limited). This company was formed of the existing partners in the firm upon the basis of their present capital, and it is not intended to offer shares to the public. Mr. Michael Thomas Bass, the senior and principal member of the company, is in his eighty-second year. Born at Burton-on-Trent, and educated at the grammar school of that town, he is the most beloved man in Beeropolis, which he has made with his business energy and ability, and which has largly profited by his princely generosity. He has represented the borough of Derby for a space of over thirty years. His parliamentary

connection with the town is of an affectionate character, such, perhaps, as exists between no other constituency and its members. His last election address to the men of Derby, began: "My dear kind friends," and in these tender words is expressed much of the personal feeling which exists between representative and represented. A Liberal in politics, he has shown that "the Liberal man deviseth Liberal things;" for Mr. Bass is not the Radical "Liberal" whose "Liberalism" is synonymous with illiberality, and who postures as the good Samaritan, but without the necessary oil and all-important twopence. Mr. Bass has shown his interest in the borough of Derby by many acts of exceptional munificence. Dr. Samuel Johnson, when taking stock as an executor under Mr. Thrale's will of the brewery that afterwards became Barclay & Perkins', remarked to Topham Beauclerk that he had at last found "the source of boundless prosperity and inexhaustible riches, with the potentiality of growing riches beyond the dreams of avarice." Mr. Bass owes his colossal fortune to his mash-tub; but if he is a modern Crœsus he is also a modern Mæcenas.

He may rank with the late George Peabody and the Baroness Burdett-Coutts in acts of public and private philanthropy. He has been in a particular sense Derby's benefactor. The sun of his beneficence has shone on Radicals and Tories alike. He has given that town free swimming-baths, an art gallery, a spacious recreation ground, and a free library and museum costing him alone something like 30,000*l*. He divides a few superfluous thousands among the local charities. His private benevolence is known to be as great as his public philanthropy. No deserving charity appeals to him in vain. He is the particular prey of that most imposing of the army of impostors—the begging letter brigade.

Mr. Bass had high qualities of head as well as heart. Of his keen business capacity the Burton breweries are sufficient evidence. Although not a "pushing" member of the House of Commons, he is a much respected one, and more than one cabinet has sought his advice in times when wisdom and experience were required. A peerage has been offered to and declined by Mr. Bass, who playfully protests that he prefers

to remain in the beerage, and thinks the honour of representing the opinions of the men of Derby in the Commons greater than the distinction of sitting in the Upper House.* The most prominent of the measures promoted by Mr. Bass is the Act against that "modern troubadour," the Italian organ man. Londoners only know how that Bill was needed. Poor John Leech was ground to death by hurdy-gurdies. How many able brain-workers less known to fame have been so too! Mr. Bass has largely interested himself in the cause of railway servants. He founded the Railway Servants' Orphanage at Derby, and started the *Railway Servants' Gazette;* and while politicians were interesting themselves in the great Eastern Question, he discovered another Great Eastern Question, at which at his advanced age he kept working perseveringly, so as to make the starved line profitable to the shareholders. Commercial travellers likewise owe much to the interest Mr. Bass shows in their welfare. The other day he gave practical illustration of the solicitude he takes in the progress of the excellent

* Mr. Bass retired from the parliamentary representation of Derby in the summer of 1883, being succeeded by Mr. Alderman T. Roe.

schools for the necessitous children of that body by a subscription of a thousand guineas.

Mr. Bass married in 1835 the eldest daughter of Major Samuel Arden, of Longcroft Hall, Staffordshire. He has two sons. Michael Arthur Bass, the elder, is a county magistrate for Stafford, and member in the Liberal interest for the Eastern Division of that county; and the younger son, Mr. Hamar Bass, represents in the present Parliament the Liberals of Tamworth. Both share their father's administrative business capacity, Parliamentary aptitude, and amiable nature.

In thus dealing discursively with the Burton Breweries, we have chosen Messrs. Bass & Company as the chief of some thirty other Burton firms, all more or less famous for the purity of their products, and which, with the premier brewers, Messrs. Bass, represent nearly one-tenth of the entire brewing industry of the United Kingdom. As old-established as the house of Bass, and second to that firm in extent and position, come Messrs. Allsopp & Sons, who have agencies all over the world. Their Indian Ale is one of the specialities of the trade, and in

the East they and Messrs. Bass are as the rival Kings of Brentford. Among other Burton firms we may cite for separate mention those of Messrs. Salt & Co.; Messrs. Ind, Coope & Co.; the Burton Brewery Company (Limited); Messrs. Truman, Hanbury & Co.; Messrs. Charles Hill & Son; Messrs. Mann, Crossman & Co.; Messrs. Worthington & Co.; Messrs. Robinson & Co.; and Messrs. Bindley & Co., who won the gold medal at the Paris Exposition of 1878.

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